

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

AN

INTER

NATIONAL

MAGAZINE

JANUARY

39

Elihu Root: World Statesman

Oil Resources of the United States

Why Postal Savings-Banks Are Needed

By Postmaster-General Meyer

The Nation's Demand for Tariff Revision

United States and Canadian Viewpoints

Water Powers: Their Use and Control

Pinchot, Saving the Nation's Domain

London's Unemployed in Canada

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THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

VOL. XXXIX.

NEW YORK, JANUARY, 1909.

No. 1.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*At the Turn
of the
Year.* The new year begins hopefully for the people of the United States.

The clouds of financial and industrial depression are fast disappearing. But it is not along material lines alone that the country is advancing. The prevailing standards of political and social life are higher than ever before, and they owe much to the Administration at Washington, which is soon to end. In the field of education a hundred things might be noted that would illustrate the vigor and intelligence of the forward movement. The political campaign has had results which leave the people of the country in a mood of harmony and confidence; and it may be worth while to add that we have been at much pains to compile what is thus far the most accurate statement that has been made of the popular vote in the November election (see table on page 34). Above all, our nation is at peace with all others, and has done many things to give firmer assurance of peace in perpetuity. As Mr. Root is soon to leave the State Department, to become Senator from New York, there ought to be a deep appreciation of his quiet but epoch-making work as a world harmonizer. Elsewhere we publish an estimate of his services.

The Japanese-American Notes. The notes exchanged between Secretary Root and Baron Taka-hira for their respective governments were referred to in these pages last month. The actual exchange of notes took place at the State Department on December 1, and publication was made on the same day at Washington and Tokio. Except for a slight difference in the preambles, the notes are identical and read as follows:

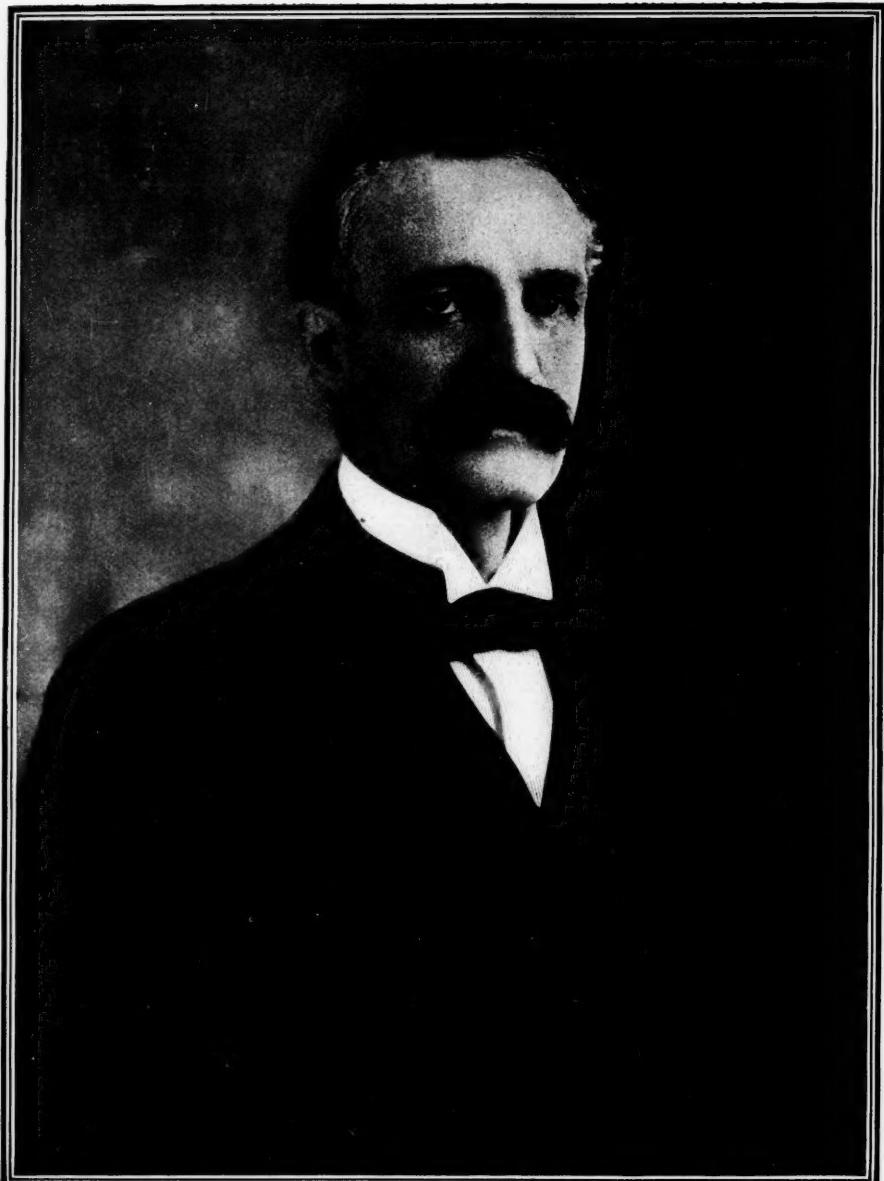
(1) It is the wish of the two governments to encourage the free and peaceful development of their commerce on the Pacific Ocean. (2) The policy of both governments, uninfluenced by any aggressive tendencies, is directed to the maintenance of the existing status quo in the region

above mentioned and to the defense of the principle of equal opportunity for commerce and industry in China. (3) They are accordingly firmly resolved reciprocally to respect the territorial possessions belonging to each other in said region. (4) They are also determined to preserve the common interests of all powers in China by supporting by all pacific means at their disposal the independence and integrity of China and the principle of equal opportunity for commerce and industry of all nations in that empire. (5) Should any event occur threatening the status quo as above described or the principle of equal opportunity as above defined it remains for the two governments to communicate with each other in order to arrive at an understanding as to what measures they may consider it useful to take.

In his accompanying statement the Japanese Ambassador referred to the exchange of notes as "a transaction between close friends." The notes are, he declared,

simply a reaffirmation of what was declared by the two governments years ago, or a definition of the understanding already existing. It is, however, to be remarked that the notes which are exchanged between governments of great moral standing, as those of the United States and Japan, will have a great importance in the carrying out of their common policy. Japan has entire confidence in the great moral strength of the United States Government, and that the latter fully trust, in the strong good faith of the Japanese Government has been aptly proved by past experience. In this respect it is something like a transaction between trusted friends, and it is sincerely to be hoped that the people of each country will have the same confidence as their own Government in respect to the declaration of the other, and in doing so there will be everything to gain and nothing to lose, and friendly intercourse and commercial relations will be fully developed.

Since the "understanding" is by its wording neither a formal agreement nor a treaty, ratification by our own Senate is not necessary. The news of the understanding has been received throughout the world with approval, although a section of the Japanese press deprecates the omission of any reference to the immigration question.



HON. GIFFORD PINCHOT.

Mr. Pinchot, as the chairman of the National Conservation Commission, was the central personality in the second conference of that important body, which took place in Washington during the month of December. We take pleasure in publishing, on page 88 of this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, a brief summary of his interesting work as the Government's Chief Forester and his unselfish efforts for the conservation of our natural resources.





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THE MEMBERS OF THE WAYS AND MEANS COMMITTEE OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES HOLDING TARIFF HEARINGS LAST MONTH.

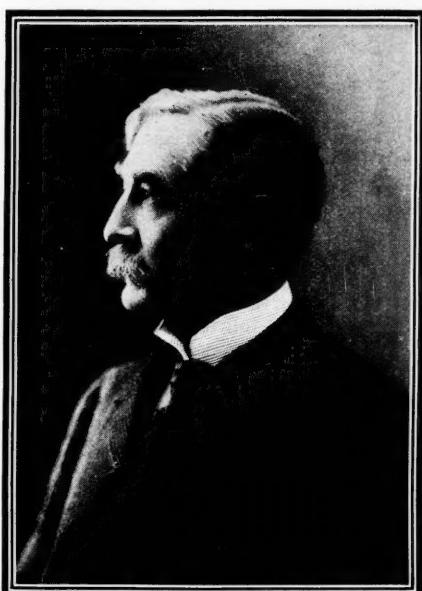
The Tariff Agitation. The year upon which we are entering will witness a revision of the elaborate schedules of customs dues collected as a tax upon the importation of foreign goods into the United States. This tariff question is one that has always been with us from the foundations of our national Government. Wisely or unwisely, people prefer to pay their taxes indirectly. People of property are particularly fond of customs dues upon foreign articles, and excise taxes upon domestic trade, because the burden of taxation by virtue of these methods falls lightly upon the rich and heavily upon the poor. When a large part of the national revenue is collected from domestic brewers and distillers and from tobacco manufacturers, the burden is passed along to the consumer, and the workingman who uses such articles as beer and tobacco is not likely to realize that he is paying to the national Government a very appreciable tax out of every week's wage. In like manner the cost of many articles of clothing and of ordinary use in households or workshops may be considerably increased through the effect upon home prices of high tariff duties upon imports. Although, however, the political economist may be right in holding that taxes should be direct and undisguised, and that the burden should be distributed in accordance with men's ability to pay, there are some practical reasons why, for a good while to come, our national Government will depend mainly upon indirect taxes for its revenue. One reason is that States, counties, municipalities, school districts, and other minor political divisions rely upon the direct assessment of property, and are prohibited from levying some of the forms of indirect taxa-

tion that are open to the national Government. Another reason is that the income tax is still very unpopular, and is also opposed on constitutional grounds. As a plain matter of fact, therefore, every one admits, regardless of theories, that we are going to continue for an indefinite time to levy taxes upon imports.

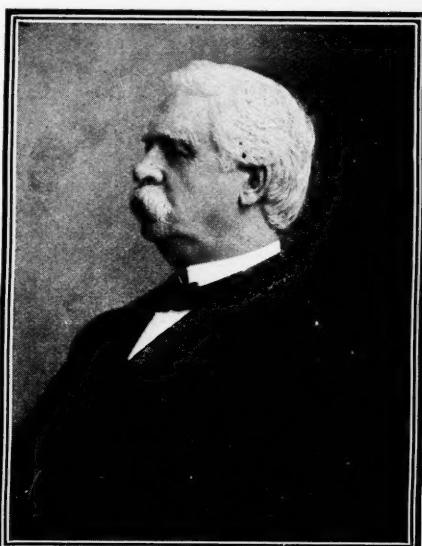
Can the Revision Be Scientific? When it comes to the work of arranging the varying lists of duties charged upon many hundreds of articles the work becomes difficult beyond the grasp of any one individual; and the upshot of the matter is that the schedules as they now stand and as they have been for many decades are full of more or less arbitrary compromises. A really new tariff enactment, under our present system, is not to be expected. Each revision is based upon the main classifications and fundamental structure of the law as the revisers found it. It will have to be so with the tariff bill of 1909. Since there is no getting away from that fact, there will not be much discussion of it. The present tariff permits the importation of large quantities of necessary articles and materials of ordinary use that do not seriously compete with articles of home production without the payment of any duty whatever. Other articles that do not compete, but that constitute the luxuries of the rich, are heavily taxed. Most articles of manufacture are also heavily taxed, in order to give a preference to the domestic trade and to build up industries on American soil. In the making of the new tariff it will be proposed to add some articles to the free list, as, for example, rough lumber, pulp from which paper is made, hides, and other mate-

rials entering into different kinds of manufacture. It will further be attempted to increase the income of the Government from costly foreign articles that are purchased as luxuries by the wealthy. The most serious controversy will rage around the question, how high the scale of duties ought to be on manufactured articles with a view to protecting American industry. It will never be possible to have a strictly scientific tariff as long as the two motives of public revenue and protection of private industry are blended in the work of arranging the schedules. Yet it is by no means impossible to maintain the principle of protection, to keep in mind the need of public revenue, and to show respect to several salutary principles of taxation in readjusting the tariff law of the United States.

The Country Ready For a New Tariff. The country has been prosperous during most of the time that has elapsed since the adoption of the Dingley tariff, in 1897. Although particular interests have argued for specific changes, the country as a whole has been so comfortable under the existing tariff that it has not allowed itself to be agitated on the subject of tariff reform. The American people,



HON. JOHN DALZELL, OF PENNSYLVANIA.
(The ranking Republican member of the Ways and Means Committee.)



HON. SERENO E. PAYNE, OF NEW YORK.
(Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee.)

however, have a capacity for interesting themselves in a given matter when the psychological moment arrives. They are not now highly excited on the tariff question, but since the time has plainly come for overhauling the existing law, they are giving the subject some serious attention. It was manifestly impossible to secure any active work upon tariff changes during the Roosevelt Administration. Congress and the country were occupied with other subjects. But it was clearly foreseen a year ago that the Sixty-first Congress would have to revise the tariff, whether the Republicans or the Democrats should be in control of it; and it was also agreed by "standpatters" and reformers alike that it would be necessary for the Republicans to promise that they would take up the tariff question in good faith, and would favor the calling of a special session of Congress for that purpose, as soon as possible after the inauguration of a new President.

How to Study the Subject.

There were many Republicans a year ago who took the ground that the tariff could not be intelligently revised without a great deal of preliminary study. They demanded the appointment of a tariff commission which would enter deeply into the subject with a view to ascertaining the relative cost of pro-

duction of various articles at home and abroad, and set in order for the benefit of Congress as much data as possible bearing upon the whole question. Senator Beveridge introduced a bill to this effect, and the National Manufacturers' Association sent representatives to Washington who used their best efforts to secure the passage of such a measure, but without avail. It was at length proposed that the President should create under one of the Cabinet departments a tariff bureau to be manned by statisticians and experts already in the Government employ, who should lose no time in proceeding to collate information for Congressional use. This idea, also, was rejected by the Republican leaders of the two houses. As a result, however, of the agitation for a commission or a tariff bureau, Congress took a less decisive step, and the Ways and Means Committee of the House was instructed to proceed at once in its own way, employing experts to investigate at home and abroad, holding public hearings and proceeding during the recess of Congress to get ready for the special session of next March or April. In accordance with that decision, the Ways and Means Committee sent men abroad and proceeded to deal in a preliminary way with the making of a new tariff bill. The hearings last month attracted wide attention and stimulated tariff discussion in the press. The steel men were especially prominent as witnesses on cost of production at home and abroad.

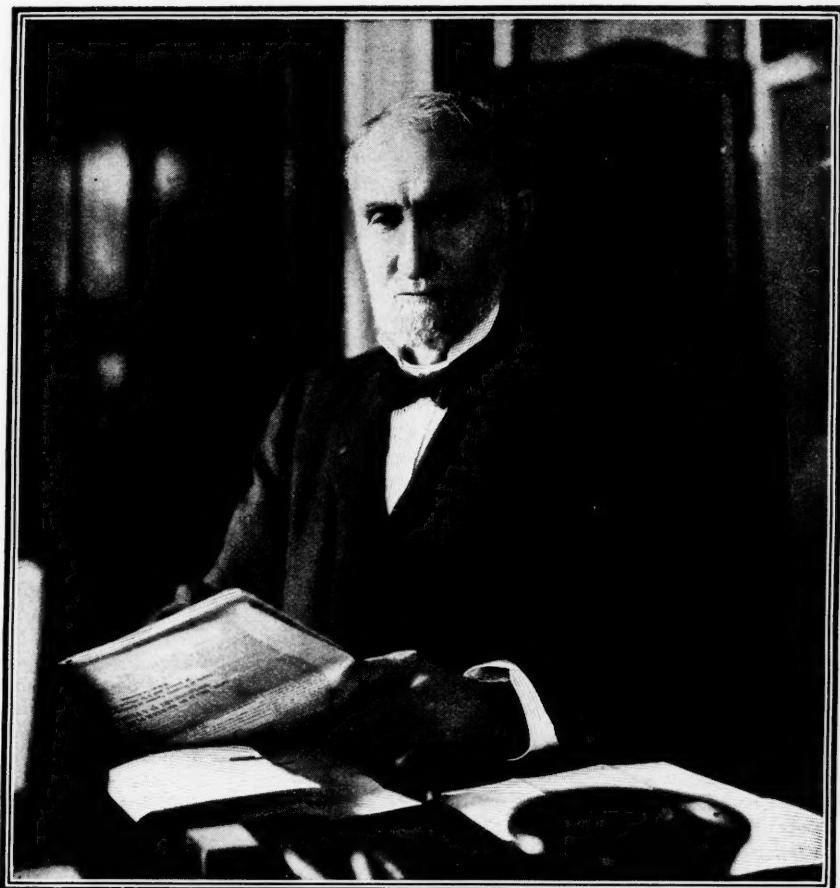
The Hearings at Ways and Means Committee Washington. In the earlier hearings before the was natural enough that various manufacturers' organizations and protected interests should be prepared to present their views and to argue as strongly as possible against any radical lowering of the protection wall. As a consequence of some of the testimony at these public hearings the country received the impression that the Ways and Means Committee intended to maintain the present Dingley tariff without many changes of a material sort. In the face of this impression there appeared an article from the pen of Mr. Andrew Carnegie, taking the ground that manufacturers of iron and steel had outgrown the need of protection, because such wares could be made in this country in larger quantities and at lower costs per unit than anywhere else. Mr. Carnegie had for so long a time been regarded as the foremost beneficiary of the American protective tariff that his arguments against high duties on steel made a decided sensation. His position was not in accord with that which certain other iron and steel men, notably Mr. Charles M. Schwab, took before the Ways and Means Committee when they testified on the cost of production. But Mr. Carnegie's article at least aroused a discussion that made it certain that the iron and steel schedule would be revised upon the merits of the case from the standpoint of the public welfare.



(Mr. Carnegie in a recent magazine article maintained that the steel industry no longer required tariff protection.)

From the *Herald* (Washington, D. C.)

Prospects of an "Honest" Ways and Means Committee Bill. For a time the feeling against the even within the Republican party, was of such a nature as to threaten to discredit the committee's work in advance, and to endanger the control of its own bill on the floor of the House next spring. It was known that Mr. Taft, as prospective President, had taken a very strong position in favor of what was called a thorough and honest revision, and that he had privately threatened to veto any tariff bill which should come short of his views as to what was required in consistency with the promises of the Republican national platform. It was charged that Speaker Cannon was in favor of the least possible tariff revision, and that Mr. Payne, of New York, chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, closely supported by Mr. Dalzell, who represents the Pittsburg district, was hostile to any revision except a nominal and perfunctory one. Mr. Taft, however, early in December, made a visit to Washington, and had a conference not only

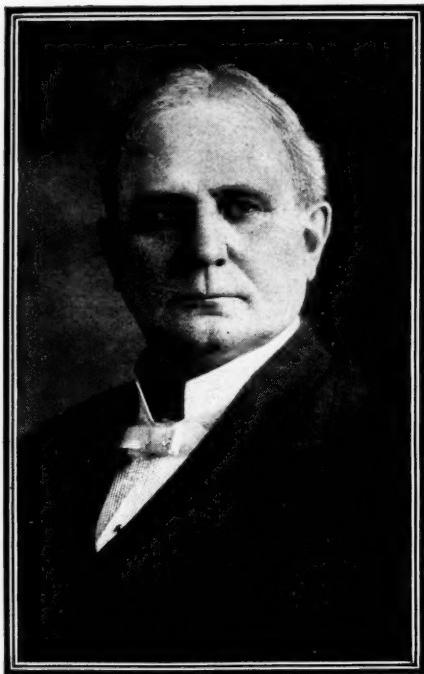


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A NEW PORTAIT OF MR. CANNON, WHO WILL BE RE-ELECTED SPEAKER OF THE NEXT CONGRESS.

with Speaker Cannon, but with the Republican members of the Ways and Means Committee. As a result of these conferences it was announced that the friends of Mr. Taft and of tariff revision would not oppose Mr. Cannon's re-election as Speaker of the next Congress. And it was further said that Mr. Payne and Mr. Dalzell satisfied Mr. Taft that the committee was preparing to do thorough work along the line of Republican promises. The Republican point of view is that tariff rates should protect the American standard of wage payment and should not ignore the view that it is desirable for this country to maintain prosperous and diversified manufactures. The prospect is that there will be party harmony on the new tariff.

We publish on page 39 an instructive letter from the Hon. James A. Tawney, of Minnesota, chairman of the great Committee on Appropriations, as respects the present outlook for tariff revision. Mr. Tawney was one of the sub-committee that drafted the present Dingley tariff in 1897. As head of the Appropriations Committee he is no longer serving on the committee over which Mr. Payne presides, but his position on tariff questions is very influential. His own State, and the entire Northwest, have demanded positive and sharp changes in the existing tariff schedule. Mr. Tawney expresses confidence in the committee now at work, and evidently believes that the Republican bill as finally



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HON. CHAMP CLARK, OF MISSOURI.

(Leader of the Democratic minority in the House and active in the tariff work of the Ways and Means Committee.)

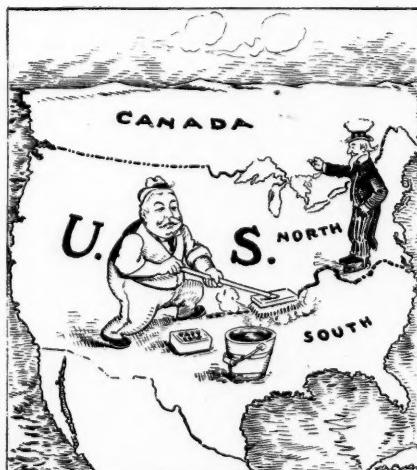
shaped and presented to a Republican caucus of the House will in a general way accord with the views that Mr. Taft represents.

We also publish on page 82 of the present number an article on methods of tariff revision, from the pen of Mr. H. E. Miles, the energetic chairman of the National Manufacturers' Committee on the Tariff. Mr. Miles has devoted an immense amount of time and effort to the subject of tariff revision, and has convinced his great association that the only proper way to deal with the subject is through a permanent commission of experts. His criticisms of the present method of tariff-making are exceedingly sharp, but they must be taken as reflecting not upon the members of the Ways and Means Committee but rather upon the system. As a matter of fact, Mr. Miles' own efforts at Washington last winter helped not a little to induce the Ways and Means Committee to employ experts and

to make more thorough preparation than would otherwise have been made for presenting a bill to the new Congress next spring. However sound may be Mr. Miles' views on a tariff commission, he doubtless knows that the present year is to give us a revised tariff at the hands of the Ways and Means Committee without any commission as a preliminary step. When the new tariff is adopted and put into operation it may be possible to persuade Congress to establish a tariff bureau in the Department of Commerce, with a view to the constant study and compilation of facts, both foreign and domestic, bearing upon tariff matters.

Canada and Our Tariff

We also publish a very interesting and pointed contribution from a valued correspondent in Canada (see page 85), who presents some views upon the tariff relations of the Dominion and the United States that people on this side of the line ought not to forget. The existence of an artificial tariff barrier across the North American continent is distinctly harmful. The ideal arrangement would be that of a complete commercial union. There are now powerful private interests on both sides of the line that prefer protection for the sake of their own monopolistic relation to local markets; but free trade between the United States and Canada would be greatly for the advantage of both countries. At present there is no possibility of success for



U. S.: "Say, Bill, shall we wipe out both lines?"
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



AN ILLUSTRATION FROM THE TEN USED BY PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT IN HIS MESSAGE TO CONGRESS SHOWING WASTE DUE TO FOREST DESTRUCTION IN CHINA.

a project so complete in its statesmanship, but every successive revision of the tariff should contemplate a future freedom of exchange across the international boundary line.

Free Canadian Forest Products. At the present moment we have an especial need of free access to the almost unlimited forests of our northern neighbor. With any sort of proper regulation Canada can maintain her forests through the generations to come, and yet permit the harvesting of enough timber every year to supply the demand for white paper as well as a great part of the North American demand for ordinary sawn lumber. At former times of tariff rearrangement our lumber interests have secured protection against the products of Canadian forests, but the time has come when we should withdraw every artificial encouragement that fosters the danger of a rapid destruction of our now scanty timber belts. The lumberman need not fear that prices will become low. The day of cheap lumber has gone by forever. But it should be equally true that the day of high premiums upon the destruction of our forests should also end at once. The danger of losing our most necessary tracts of mountain woodland has been realized by the experts for several years, but it is only now that the general public has begun to comprehend the situation.

We Are
Losing Our
Forests.

Last month the President's commission on the conservation of natural resources held a meeting in Washington, and many governors, as well as various other influential citizens of different States, attended the session. Governor Guild, of Massachusetts, stated that within five years the White Mountain forests would all be gone unless the pending bill for the creation of a White Mountain forest reserve should become a law. His views were supported by the most practical and competent experts. Mr. James S. Whipple, the Forest, Fish and Game Commissioner of New York, also stated last month, as respects conditions in that State, that the denudation of hills at the headwaters of the Hudson had so affected the flow of that great stream that in its upper stretches last summer the water was only two inches deep. New York City is entering upon the most costly water-supply project in the history of the world—an undertaking that will cost as much as the original estimates of the expense of the Panama Canal. While continuing to develop the Croton watershed for immediate uses, New York is beginning work upon a water system that will cost from \$150,000,000 to \$200,000,000, and that will bring what is estimated to be a practically exhaustless supply from a series of dams and reservoirs in the Catskill Mountains. But Mr. Whipple

shows that the success of this project is practically dependent upon the preservation of the timbered character of the mountain slopes from which the water is to be gathered; and he declares that a proper forestry policy is the only thing that can assure to the great metropolis its future drinking-water.

*Mr. Roosevelt
on
Forests.* The most powerful passages in President Roosevelt's message to Congress last month,—all the

more impressive because this is the last of his annual messages,—described the terrible consequences that have followed the destruction of forests in China. The President makes it plain that the cutting away of the Chinese mountain forests has continued up to a very recent period, and that the devastation has finally led to such violence of erosion in the rainy period of the year that the soil has been washed away, and reafforestation has become impossible. It is not a false or idle alarm that President Roosevelt sounds, and it will be criminal stupidity if we neglect any longer to adopt a forest policy based upon principles of intelligence and patriotism.

*The Need
of Eastern
Reserves.* The greatest immediate demand is for the passage of the bill creating the White Mountain and Appalachian forest reserves in the eastern part of the United States. The bill was passed

by the Senate last year, but was held up in the House. Two years ago the House Committee on Agriculture was unanimous in reporting the bill favorably. But now Mr. Cannon has reconstituted the Committee on Agriculture, and the bill is blocked. Every body in the United States who has considered the subject would seem to be favorable to the prompt passage of this bill, with the exception of Speaker Cannon and several members of his Committee on Agriculture. The press is unanimous for it, and it would be immediately passed by the House with an overwhelming majority if it were allowed to come to a vote. Here we have a measure of urgent necessity, carefully thought out, supported on the loftiest motives by all who have thoroughly considered the subject, urged in messages by the President, advocated repeatedly before the Committee on Agriculture by governors or their representatives from many States, involving the welfare of the country for centuries to come, and yet the whole business is held up because, under the rules of the House, Speaker Cannon is in a position to keep the House from voting upon the question. Few can even faintly appreciate the pressure upon Mr. Cannon as Speaker and upon Mr. Tawney as chairman of the Appropriations Committee to spend public money far beyond Uncle Sam's income. But they must help save the forests.



BUT WHERE'S THE MONEY COMING FROM?

JIM TAWNEY TO JOE CANNON: "Say, but these things are almighty fine. If we only had the coin we'd buy 'em all for Sammy."

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

The Speaker Blocks the Bill. It is necessary to have rigid House rules in order to prevent filibustering and in order to pass appropriation bills and do necessary business. But the evolution of the present system has made the power of the Speaker far too great, while the development of Mr. Cannon's character in the exercise of so vast a power has made him altogether too arbitrary. It seems now to be understood that there will not be very serious opposition to Mr. Cannon's re-election as Speaker of the next House. His attitude toward measures like these for the creation of forest reserves is undoubtedly based upon his view of the need of limiting national expenditures. But Mr. Cannon should economize at some other point. The protection of forests is vital to our future comfort and prosperity. There are many other things that can wait.

Hold Not to Tax Forest Land. One of the greatest needs, meanwhile, is the devising of State systems which will not only tend to preserve forest tracts owned by private individuals, but will also encourage the replanting of trees on waste land and denuded hillsides. The greatest difficulty is in the local tax systems. Everywhere throughout the country merchantable standing timber has become valuable, and timber lands are accordingly assessed and taxed upon their selling value. This would be a sound principle if the timber was to be sold and cut away in the year for which taxes are paid. But if the timber is left standing, the same high tax must be paid the next year and again the next. On a few moments' reflection it becomes obvious that this system compels the owners of timber land to cut off the timber much faster than would otherwise be necessary. The farmer who owns a tract of woodland must work his cleared fields the harder in order to earn the money which he must pay year after year unceasingly for the luxury of leaving his trees standing.

Time for a Model Law. In former times it was the custom of this country to assess timber lands at so low a rate that the question had no serious public importance; especially in view of the fact that the country was generally wooded, nobody ever thought of a lumber famine, and it was the custom to girdle the trees and burn them off to get rid of them. Entirely new conditions, however, have now arisen. Merchantable trees should be taxed when harvested, but

not when standing. Waste tracts of land re-afforested should not be subject to taxation during the period of years required for the maturity of the trees. A law of this nature was passed in the State of New York last year, but was vetoed by Governor Hughes on the ground that it did not provide carefully enough against the danger of exempting from taxes suburban lands which would be held, not for the timber, but for a speculative rise in land values. Of course laws intended to protect and encourage the maintenance of forests should be drawn in such a way that land values could be assessed apart from the value of the timber, with exemption applying only to a certain maximum of the land valuation. It is to be hoped that Governor Hughes will encourage the re-enactment of the New York bill with necessary modifications. A model act of this kind in the State of New York would have great influence in other States, and we should soon witness the adoption of a sound policy of forest taxation everywhere.

State Ownership of Woodlands. A proper State policy, however, would also aid and encourage the acquisition by the State itself of as much mountainous and waste land as possible, with a view to the perpetual maintenance of State forests, for the better protection of water supplies and the guarding of various related interests. Those States having large lumber interests have been guilty of a colossal blunder in not resuming ownership of the cut-over lands, which they might have done in most instances at no cost whatever, since the lumber companies as a rule declined to pay taxes after the pine and spruce had been harvested. To some extent a number of the States are now adopting the policy of following up the lumber companies and acquiring the denuded lands for permanent State use. The State of New York constantly increases its holdings in the Adirondacks and the Catskills, but it pays an average of \$5 or \$6 an acre for lands which it might a few years ago have obtained for little or nothing.

The National Conservation Movement. The pressing nature of this forest problem has made the national movement for the conservation of the country's resources as timely as it is meritorious. Mr. Gifford Pinchot, whose position at the head of the conservation movement is universally recognized as most fitting, has through his own energy and zeal built up



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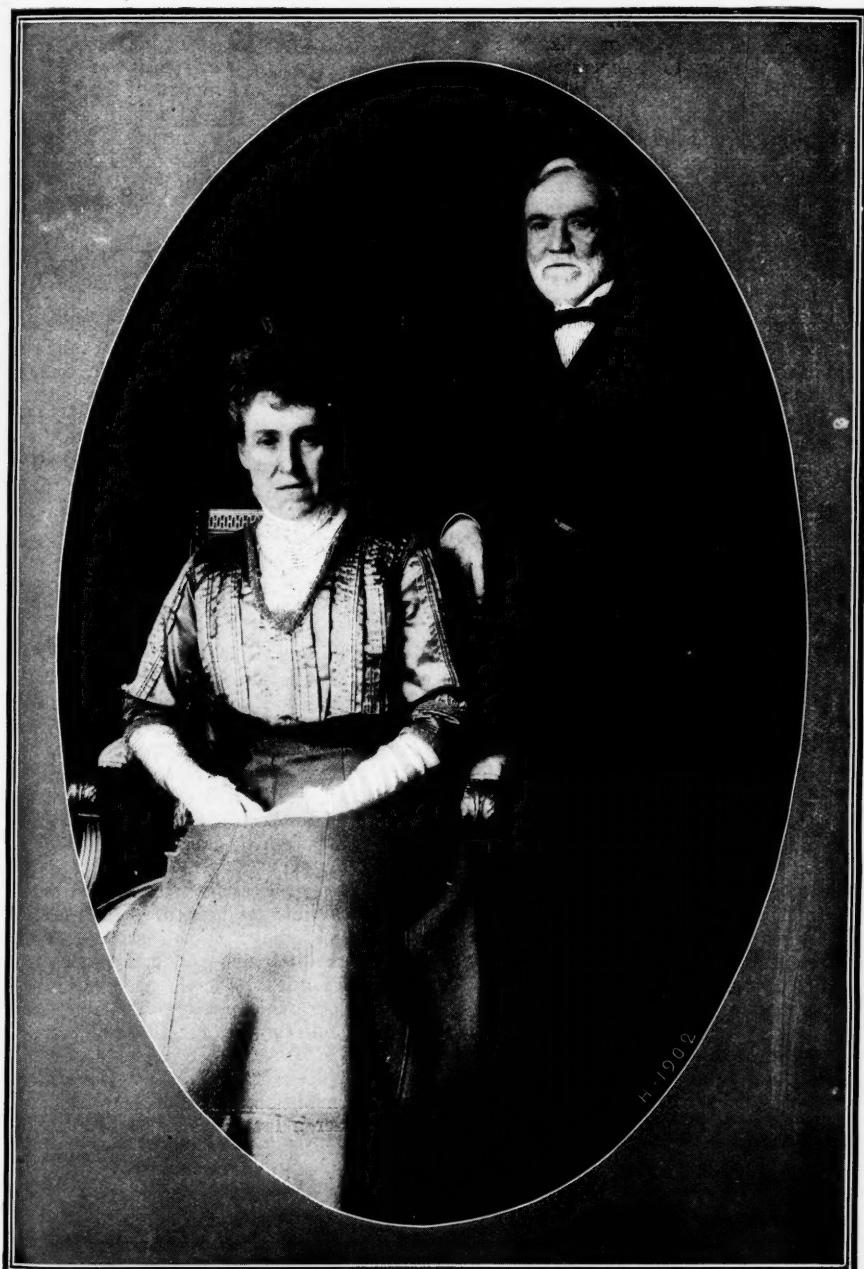
THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF THE SOUTHERN COMMERCIAL CONGRESS.

Sitting, left to right: 1, Jas. E. Smith, president Business Men's League, St. Louis, Mo.; 2, E. S. Shannon, secretary Board of Trade, Nashville, Tenn.; 3, G. Grosvenor Dawe, chairman, Montgomery, Ala.; 4, John A. Patten, treasurer, Chattanooga, Tenn. Standing, left to right: 1, Geo. H. Cox, Owensboro, Ky.; 2, Edwin L. Quarles, secretary Chamber of Commerce, Petersburg, Va.; 3, John A. Betjeman, secretary Albany, Ga.; 4, W. B. Royster, Chattanooga, Tenn.

the Forestry Bureau of the Agricultural Department from a very small beginning to a great and well-established branch of the public service. A sketch of Mr. Pinchot's career will be found on page 88 of the present number of this REVIEW. Other great natural resources that the conservation movement is concerned about besides the forests and the rivers are the supplies of coal, petroleum, and natural gas. We are also publishing in this number an especially timely article upon the oil industry of the United States from the pen of Dr. David T. Day, of Washington. Dr. Day is our highest scientific authority upon petroleum, and as one of the experts for many years of the United States Geological Survey he has made himself known throughout the world.

Conferences at Washington. Washington in the early part of December, just after the opening of the last session of the Sixtieth Congress, was crowded with men who had come from all parts of the country to attend a series of unofficial congresses and conferences the work of which was quite as important as that which was going on in the great official building on Capitol Hill. It is

a hopeful sign that so many able and successful men throughout the country are willing now to work together for public ends in a spirit of patriotism. President Roosevelt and Mr. Taft both spoke at the opening session of the Conservation Conference, while the National Rivers and Harbors Congress brought together all those who believe in inland navigation as a broad policy. The special organizations working for deep water from the "Lakes to the Gulf" were jubilant because of the action of the people of Illinois in the November election, who voted by a decisive majority to issue bonds to the value of \$20,000,000 for the construction of a deep canal from Lake Michigan to the Mississippi River. It is the general opinion that the willingness of Illinois to pay for this really national project out of her own resources will greatly stimulate the improvement of the Mississippi River from St. Louis to the Gulf. The Southern Commercial Congress, representing various local boards of trade and chambers of commerce from Southern cities and States, was so successful that it was decided to make Washington its permanent headquarters and to provide there a costly building, with a large auditorium.



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MR. AND MRS. ANDREW CARNEGIE AS PHOTOGRAPHED IN WASHINGTON
LAST MONTH.

*Washington as
a National
Center.* Thus private enterprise and un-official public organizations are tending to co-operate with the Government in making Washington a truly national center, as well as a city of great beauty and distinction. One of the most prominent of the December visitors in Washington was Mr. Carnegie, whose great scientific institution for research in many fields has its headquarters at the national capital, and was described in its operations in this magazine for the month of July, last. The nation will approve of the development of Washington as a center for education, science, and art. Mr. Roosevelt's years in the White House have witnessed an amazing progress at Washington in all these matters. There are those who think of Mr. Roosevelt as engaged in controversies about the regulation of trusts and in efforts to persuade Congress to do its full duty, and they have only a little inkling of the President's wonderful success in the promotion of improved scientific work in all the departments and bureaus of the Government.

*Improving
the Public
Service.* It is not alone in the public service throughout the country that his advocacy of civil service reform has shown its results, but also notably in Washington the personnel of administration has been enriched by the addition of great numbers of accomplished and highly trained men whose value to the Government and the country cannot easily be overstated. One of Mr. Roosevelt's earnest recent efforts has been to have the next census made more efficient by the elimination of the spoils system from the selection of census employees. It is estimated that at least \$2,000,000 would have been saved on the cost of the census of 1900 if civil-service rules had prevailed in the selection of employees. Unfortunately, Congressmen are not willing to forego their expected shares in this petty census spoils distribution, and the Senate is sustaining the House in refusing to authorize a reform that is demanded by every principle of efficiency. The President has been able, however, of his own accord, to put all the fourth-class postmasters of the most populous section of the country,—namely, that east of the Mississippi and north of the Ohio,—on the basis of appointment under civil-service rules, and thus to remove them from the traditional domain of Congressional patronage. It is, of course, intended in due time to extend this order to fourth-class postmasters elsewhere.

*Governing the
District of
Columbia.* One of the President's recommendations made in a special message to Congress is for a reorganization of the government of the District of Columbia. The plan of a single governor with a series of department heads is recommended, in place of the present system, which provides for three commissioners. In view of the rapid development of Washington and its vicinity, one of the measures most urgently desirable is the restoration to the District of Columbia of that portion of the original ten-mile-square tract which lies on the Virginia side of the Potomac. This resumption of federal control over the full area of the original district ought to take place in connection with the reorganization of the District government. It would seem reasonable also to allow the citizens of the District to have the franchise under a plan that would not clash with the necessary authority of Congress over what must always remain a national and federal rather than a merely local city. The District people are not aliens.

*The President's
Annual
Message.* The President's annual message to Congress was transmitted with a set of striking illustrations, accompanying the printed copies, to show the effects in China of the destruction of forests. The message opens with a review of the Government's income and expenditure, and shows that, in spite of the appropriations for the Panama Canal and other increased outgoes, there has been a net surplus of nearly \$100,000,000 during Mr. Roosevelt's Presidency, with about \$90,000,000 reduction of the national debt, and a marked decrease of the annual interest burden. In discussing corporations, the President denounces the Sherman Anti-Trust law, and advocates a substitute for it which will expressly permit combinations, while giving the national Government full power of control and supervision. He advocates the placing of the railroads completely under the Interstate Commerce Commission, and would not deal with them under a law intended to regulate industrial trusts and combinations. He has never stated these views more clearly or strongly than in this year's message. It was supposed that these also, in general, were the views of Mr. Taft. At the Ohio Society's dinner in New York, however, on December 16, Mr. Taft, in referring to the Sherman Anti-Trust law, seemed to take a somewhat different line. Mr. Roosevelt believes that large combinations of business are

inevitable and valuable, but that commerce is so predominantly an interstate matter that commerce ought to be regulated by the national Government, and that large corporations ought to have federal rather than State charters. He does not believe that industrial corporations and railroads should be dealt with under the same statute. Probably Mr. Taft will express himself more definitely and fully on these points at a later time. The Sherman Anti-Trust law as it stands is not beneficial to American business, and under various court decisions this law might be turned vexatiously against almost every large corporate undertaking in the country.

*On
the
Courts.*

The President proceeds in his message to show that the Government should provide further protection for wage-workers by increasing the liability of employers, and he discusses at great length the relation of the courts to the establishment and enforcement of the principles of justice. His discussion of the courts is very pertinent, and entirely fair. The idea sometimes expressed that judges on the bench are above criticism in a democracy like ours is not tenable. Our courts require the most constant scrutiny and the sharpest solicitude on the part of citizens to keep them above suspicion. When considerable numbers of important judges owe their places and emoluments to a Tammany boss like Mr. Croker or Mr. Murphy, it does not follow that they will be corrupt or partial in the performance of their judicial work. But it would be ridiculous, on the other hand, to go to the opposite extreme and assume that political lawyers who have thus been elevated are suddenly transformed into human paragons. As a matter of fact, the men we have put on the bench in this country have as a rule behaved themselves uncommonly well. The American bench, however, will be respected purely upon its merits, and not through the preaching of the doctrine of exaggerated respect for the courts regardless of the character and conduct of the judges.

*The Row
About the
Secret Service.*

In the course of his general message Mr. Roosevelt called the attention of Congress to an item in last year's Appropriation bill which, while providing for the expense of the Secret Service, declared that there should be no detail from that service and no transfers therefrom. Heretofore the Secret Service officers have been a small body of trained and trustworthy



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HON. WILLIAM H. TAFT.

(As photographed in New York on December 16, the day of his important address before the Ohio Society.)

men of police or detective experience, attached directly to the Treasury Department, but utilized by the President where necessary in carrying out his duty of enforcing the laws and preventing crime. Thus, for many years past, Secret Service officers have assisted in protecting the mails and enforcing the laws against lotteries. They have helped to unearth the gigantic frauds against the public land laws, which have caused so great a loss to our Government and so many scandals involving public officials. The Secret Service men have helped discover and punish great frauds practiced on the Government in the matter of importations and the internal revenue laws. The conviction of a Congressman and a Senator in connection with land frauds was brought about in part by the work of the Secret Service. In the multiplicity of details covered by the great appropriation bills the restriction made by Congress last year upon the use of the Secret Service escaped general attention, and was probably overlooked by the President himself when he signed the bill in question, while probably not a dozen members of Congress were aware that such a limiting clause had been inserted.

Congress Takes Offense. Mr. Roosevelt, in presenting the subject in this year's message, states very clearly that such a restriction could operate only in the interest of those perpetrating crime against the Government. In this connection, he declares, "The chief argument in favor of the provision was that the Congressmen did not themselves wish to be investigated by Secret Service men." The President goes on to say that these detectives had been used constantly in prosecuting and convicting criminals in the executive branch of the Government, and adds, "In my belief we should be given ample means to prosecute them, if found, in the legislative branch." In conclusion, he says: "But if this is not considered desirable, a special exception could be made in the law, prohibiting the use of the Secret Service force in investigating members of Congress. It would be far better to do this than to do what actually was done, and strive to prevent, or at least to hamper, effective action against criminals by the executive branch of the Government." Congress chose to take great umbrage at this passage in the message. Certain members made the discovery that a co-ordinate branch of the Government had been insulted by the Chief Magistrate. Whereupon they all took the view that they had been insulted, and worked themselves up into a state of furious rage, reading into the President's remarks what the ordinary person would never have found.

The Folly of Men In Crowds. It has been observed from the days of the most ancient philosophers that men who have much capacity for calmness and good sense when acting alone upon their own responsibility can exhibit the most incredible folly when acting with others in a large body, whether organized or unorganized. The performances of Congress, by reason of the President's plain and obviously valuable comment upon the Secret Service, provide us with a very excellent illustration of this well-known rule that men who are sensible by themselves can be guilty of extreme folly in a crowd. There is not a word in the President's message which either declares or intimates that Congressmen are criminals, and that they are trying to escape exposure by prohibiting the president from using Secret Service men to investigate their behavior. What the President declares is that Secret Service men ought to be under direction of the President so that they could be detailed to help the

Executive in doing what under his oath of office is his principal duty,—namely, to enforce the laws of the United States. Experience has shown that the President cannot enforce the laws with entire efficiency unless, as in case of land frauds, Secret Service men or other trained agents can be used to ferret out the criminals and to obtain evidence. If the evidence should lead to the exposure of men employed in the executive departments, as it frequently has in the past, it is even more important that false and faithless public servants should be exposed than that private individuals should be convicted. Nor does it seem sensible that when the evidence of crime is traceable to a member of the legislative branch of Government the inquiry should thereupon cease. Nevertheless, parliamentary bodies have always been jealous of their positions, because, historically, they were obliged to assert their rights as against the absolutism of sovereigns. As we understand the President's message, he means to say that the chief magistrate who is sworn to enforce the law ought not to be estopped from the detection of criminals wherever such criminals may be found. But if Congress prefers to make its own inquiries in its own way, and does not wish Secret Service men employed to obtain evidence that would seem to implicate members of Congress, the line might be drawn at that point without hampering the President in the work of enforcing the law as respects the executive departments.

How to Punish the President

No President in the history of the country has been on terms of friendly acquaintance and intercourse with as many Representatives and Senators as President Roosevelt, with the possible exception of President McKinley. Mr. Roosevelt could have had no reason for making disparaging reflections upon Congress as a body, and still less upon Congressmen as individuals. The hysteria which swept both houses by reason of this harmless passage in the President's message is to be accounted for on principles now well understood by those who have made some study of the psychology of mobs and crowds. The solemn attempts of the two chambers to find ways of expressing their resentment against Mr. Roosevelt are too absurd to be worth chronicling in pages which, like these, must be condensed. Congressmen are only children of larger growth, and their performances sometimes do not differ in principle from those of crowds.

of schoolboys who fancy they have a grievance against the headmaster. The proper thing, as a vent to the wounded susceptibilities of the Sixtieth Congress, would have been for each member to have brought his own particular copy of the President's message, with its ten pictures of denuded hillsides in North China, and heaped the 500 copies in a pile on the plaza east of the Capitol, there to be burned at high noon, with the help of a barrel or two of kerosene, which could easily have been obtained by several members of Congress from the obliging friends with whom they correspond. The precedents for burning undesirable documents in public squares are numerous and respectable. Any body of intelligent schoolboys, furthermore, could readily have shown the somewhat puzzled but very angry leaders of Congress that burning Mr. Roosevelt in effigy on top of the pile of blue-bound messages would have evened the thing up and justified the resumption of real business.

*More
Brownsville
Evidence.*

On December 14 President Roosevelt transmitted to the Senate a mass of new testimony relating to the occurrence at Brownsville, Texas, in August, 1906. The new testimony supports the previous conclusions, to the effect that the shooting of private citizens was done by members of the companies that were disbanded by order of the Government. The whole tendency, moreover, of the evidence as it accumulates indicates that many, if not most, of the discharged soldiers had some knowledge of the circumstances, though only a few were actually involved in the shooting affray. So much effort has been made to make it appear that the discharged soldiers were wronged, and that the Government acted upon insufficient evidence, that some confusion has remained in the public mind; so that it is well to know that the War Department and the President made no mistake.

*Belated
Panama
Labels.*

On the following day the President sent a special message to Congress dealing with certain charges made during the recent campaign relating to the purchase by our Government of the assets of the French companies which held the Panama Canal franchise. We are now well advanced in the construction of the canal. The work is going forward with great energy under the direction of the War Department and the Government's engineers,

and is now more than a third finished. Both party platforms endorsed the canal work and favored its rapid completion. The Democrats as a party had no charges to bring against the Republicans for extravagance or corruption in the prosecution of this great public work. The country, indeed, was congratulating itself upon the honesty and efficiency with which the work had gone forward thus far, and was prepared to believe that under Mr. Taft or under Mr. Bryan the same policy would be continued, with general approbation. It was, therefore, a matter of surprise that one or two newspapers, notably the Indianapolis *News*, should have made campaign references to the Panama purchase with intimations of great scandal purposely suppressed by the President and Mr. Taft.

*Some
Absurd
Charges.*

It was charged that the United States bought from American citizens for \$40,000,000 what had cost those citizens only \$12,000,000 in France. The President's brother-in-law was charged with having been involved in the scandal, and also Mr. Taft's brother. The matter was presented in a letter by the Hon. William D. Foulke, of Indiana, to President Roosevelt on November 25. The President replied, on December 1, in a letter of great vigor, denouncing the newspapers which had made the false charges. The Indianapolis *News* subsequently fell back upon the New York *World* as the source of its information. On December 15 Mr. Roosevelt sent a special message to Congress reviewing the facts as to the purchase of the canal and transmitting certain documents. The charges as set forth in the Indianapolis *News* were in most respects absurd in their display of ignorance. The attempt to connect Mr. Charles P. Taft and Mr. Douglas Robinson with the Panama transaction seems like a campaign invention for the sake of reflecting upon the President and the Republican candidate. The charges asserted that Mr. Taft was Secretary of War and active in the Panama purchase at a time when everybody knows that Mr. Taft was in the Philippines, while Mr. Root was Secretary of War, and Mr. Knox, as Attorney-General, carried out the purchase. Everybody knows, also, that the price paid the French receivers for the assets of the failed companies was fixed by the board of engineers named by the American Government to report upon the relative merits of Nicaragua and Panama routes.

The Well-Known Facts.

Our board had reported that the Panama rights and unfinished work were worth about \$40,000,000 to us, and finally reversed its earlier decision in favor of Nicaragua by declaring that, upon engineering and commercial grounds, it would favor the Panama route, provided a payment of \$40,000,000 by our Government would give us possession of the franchise and other assets. Those interested in France were promptly informed, a meeting was held, and authorization was given to sell the French property to the United States for \$40,000,000. Our Congress in turn authorized the purchase on those terms, Attorney-General Knox verified all questions arising as to title, and the money was transmitted through J. P. Morgan & Co., acting as fiscal agents. There was no detail of the transaction about which there was any mystery at the time. Every phase was thoroughly discussed by Congress and understood by the press. It is almost incredible that any important newspaper should have forgotten the facts.

Farm Wealth Makes a Record.

While the year 1908 brought to the railroads, manufactories, and general trade such depression as was inevitable after the financial crisis of the preceding autumn, the twelve months following the panic were for the farmers of the United States the most prosperous in the history of the country. Secretary Wilson's report of the Department of Agriculture gives the final figures of the size and value of the year's crops,—and amazing figures they are. The total value of farm products reaches \$7,778,000,000, a gain of 4 per cent. over the value of these products for the year 1907, and a gain of 65 per cent. over the year 1899. In this decade the farms have produced new wealth amounting to the staggering figure of \$60,000,000,000. Corn is still king in its contribution to the farmer's pocket; the value of the 2,643,000,000 bushels raised in 1908 was \$1,615,000,000, or more than one-fifth of the value of the total products of agriculture. This year cotton has wrested second place, in rank of value, from the hay crop, which has always, until 1908, been next to corn. And yet the hay crop is the greatest ever produced,—68,000,000 tons, worth to the farmers \$621,000,000. Close after hay comes wheat, the 660,000,000 bushels raised in 1908 having a value of \$620,000,000, which is more than 10 per cent. in excess of any previous wheat crop's value. Minor crops, barley, rye, beet-sugar,

and potatoes, were, except the last, which suffered from unfavorable weather, well up to the records in point of quantity, and all made new records in value. Dairy products brought the farmer nearly \$800,000,000, poultry and eggs even more than the cotton, and animal products, as a whole, nearly \$3,000,000,000. The farmer in 1908 produced new wealth four times as great as all the minerals taken from the ground, including oil and the precious metals.

The Movement Toward Prosperity.

No doubt this great showing of the fundamental industry of agriculture makes firm ground for the feeling of hope and buoyancy now discernible in business and industry. To be sure, one cannot find anywhere as yet such whole-hearted recovery in trade as seems to have been promised by the index finger of the stock market. The standard railroad stocks have advanced nearly 40 per cent. above their low levels of last June, and are within about twenty-one points of the high records of the boom times of 1906. The basic industry of steel shows a very modest recovery from its low stage of activity last summer, and while the Pennsylvania Railroad has given a large order,—160,000 tons of steel rails,—and considerable orders are talked of from the Rock Island system and others, the railroads as a whole are very slow in advertising their needs. It is thought that the hope of tariff changes in the steel schedules, of sufficient size to make for lower prices, is suggesting a waiting policy to purchasers of steel products. In other lines of manufacture, notably in textiles, there is a real quickening, and in building operations the autumn has seen notable activity. November was the first month of 1908 to show fewer failures than came in the same month of 1907, and bank clearings were the largest of any month since the panic. The railroads will apparently report for November a loss of less than 2 per cent. from November of 1907, much the smallest loss shown in any other month of the year.

Please for the Railroads.

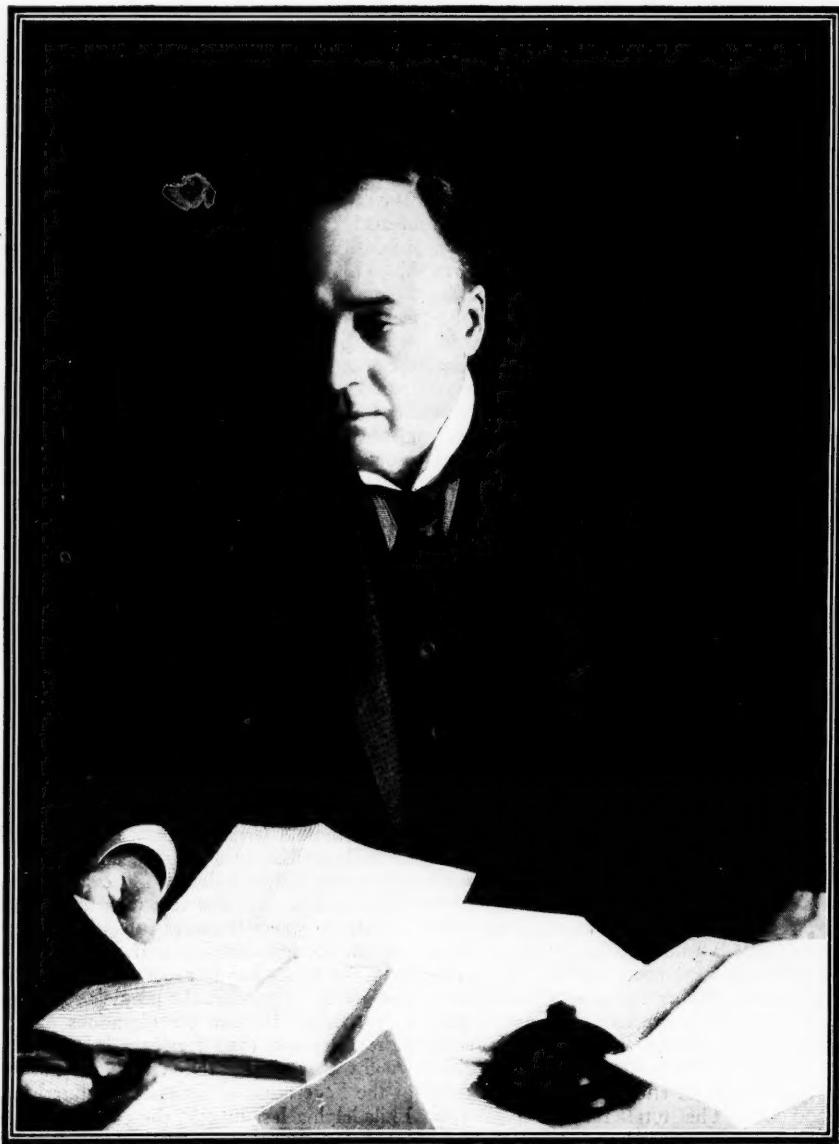
Three of the most eminent railroad men in the country found occasion last month to argue against further legislative restrictions of their industry. Mr. Yoakum, of the Rock Island system, was very emphatic with the Chicago Chamber of Commerce, at its annual banquet, in his demand for a more liberal policy toward the railways. To build up the great

areas of our country which are yet practically new the two things necessary, he said, were the locomotive and the plow, and if the headway of the locomotive were stopped by the bumping-post of unnecessary restrictions the plow would not appear. In Mr. Harriman's letter to the mining congress at Pittsburg he argued against the policy of limiting railway dividends to a 4 per cent. basis. He denied that the railroads were owned by a few rich men, and that the 300,000 stockholders in the transportation business should receive only the savings-bank rate of income, when the farmers earned 9 per cent., manufacturers 19.4 per cent., and national-bank stockholders 10 per cent. Mr. James J. Hill, too, painted a sad picture of railroad stockholding as compared with other investments. He said that three copper cents in moving a ton of freight ten miles pays the dividends of the Great Northern Railroad,—a task that would be a fair day's toil for a farmer's wagon loaded to its capacity. "You have all the highways you had before we came, but we give you a better one and a cheaper one." Mr. Harriman's contention that the railroads are not owned by a few rich men seems to be becoming more true every year; the *Journal of Commerce* finds that in the past twelve months the number of stockholders in twenty-five leading railroads has increased from 211,060 to 252,083, while the average stockholding has decreased from about 137 shares to 119.

Alaskan Progress and Prosperity. Within a decade the industrial interests of our far Northwest have developed so amazingly that all former standards of comparison have to be revised. Take, for example, the matter of Alaska's gold product. The receipts of the Seattle assay office for the ten months ending with October last amounted to \$17,202,704, or about one-fifth of the total production of the United States for an equivalent period. Ten years ago the Alaskan gold output for an entire year was less than \$5,000,000. The total for the past year would have been much greater but for a shortage in water supply throughout the mining districts of Alaska. The fact that so great an increment to the world's stock of the yellow metal should reach civilization through one of the younger of our prosperous coast cities reminds us that new channels are being formed to meet the needs of trade and finance upon our Northwestern border. Seattle, with her quarter of a mil-

lion people, is not only the metropolis of the State of Washington; she sits at the gateway to Alaska, and takes toll from those who come and go. Years ago Seattle saw the advantage of fostering the Alaskan trade, and she has profited by that foresight. Industrial and commercial Alaska is to-day, to all intents and purposes, annexed to Seattle. The Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition, to be opened at Seattle in June next, is likely to astonish those Easterners who chance to see it. This fair will represent an investment of \$10,000,000. Apart from extensive Government exhibits, provided for by Congress, Uncle Sam will have no financial interest in the enterprise; not a dollar of a Government loan has been solicited by the management. Several of the buildings are already completed, and others are nearly ready for occupancy. This fair will be a revelation of Alaska's recent progress and especially of the genius of Northwestern America.

Civic Co-operation. The people who are making serious attempts to better industrial and social conditions in this country have much cause for encouragement at the opening of the new year. Never before has there been such effective and intelligent co-operation for civic progress. If any proof of this were needed the organization and completion of the so-called "Pittsburg Survey," described by Mr. Kellogg on page 77 of this number, would of itself afford a demonstration. Another striking instance of up to date methods applied in the propaganda of social betterment is the tuberculosis exhibition in New York City. The fact that these methods are so generally successful in stimulating popular interest shows that the reform spirit is in the air,—that it needs only intelligent guidance. Moreover, the people's conscience is sensitive. Ethical considerations receive more attention than formerly. It is noteworthy that in connection with the meeting of the Federation of Protestant Churches at Philadelphia last month, the country seemed interested very little, if at all, in the perpetuation of the various denominations represented, but was distinctly impressed by the federation's deliverances on industrial questions. The resolutions adopted indicated that the American Protestant churches have at last realized that they must take some stand on these questions if they are to retain their hold on the progressive elements in our citizenship.



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HON. PHILANDER C. KNOX, WHO WILL BE MR. TAFT'S SECRETARY OF STATE.

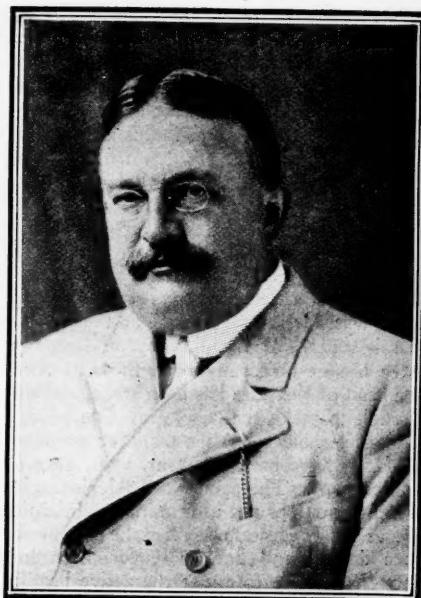
Some Personal Notes. The building and rebuilding of cabinets for Mr. Taft goes forward blithesomely in all the newspapers. Mr. Knox, formerly Attorney-General, now Senator from Pennsylvania, will lead the cabinet as Secretary of State, and Mr. Taft will find in him a strong

counselor and a broad-minded statesman. It is understood beyond a doubt that Mr. Frank H. Hitchcock is to be Postmaster-General. He has served as First Assistant Postmaster-General, and is especially gifted in those talents for systematic administration that the Postoffice Department requires. In Presi-

dent Roosevelt's cabinet, Mr. Newberry, who takes Mr. Metcalf's place as Secretary of the Navy, is showing excellent qualifications, and Mr. Satterlee, of New York, who becomes Assistant Secretary, has long been well known as an expert in naval and maritime affairs.

A Complete Settlement with Canada. A better understanding of each other, and a deepening cordiality in their relations, mark the passage of each year of Canadian-American intercourse. The first part of last month saw the culmination of negotiations between the State Department at Washington and the Ottawa government in the matter of the three treaties between the two nations, pending for some years, which are expected to permanently and satisfactorily settle all differences. Upon the departure from Washington of Mr. Joseph Pope, the Under Secretary of State for the Dominion of Canada, who has represented Sir Wilfrid Laurier in these negotiations, it was announced that, during the next session of Congress, these three treaties will be submitted to the Senate for ratification. One provides for the submission of the treaty of 1812 to the Hague Tribunal for the purpose of discovering and definitely "delimiting" the respective rights of Canada, Newfoundland, and the United States in the Atlantic fisheries. The second will carefully set all water boundaries and decide all questions relative to the ownership of rivers common to the United States and Canada, including the use of Niagara Falls for power purposes, and will provide, also, it is announced, for a permanent commission of arbitration, to which all water questions will be referred in the future. The third is understood to deal with the settlement of certain outstanding pecuniary claims of each nation against the other.

Letting Cuba Stand Alone. On the first day of the present month the departure of the army of Cuban pacification will begin. The troops will leave in detachments, the last contingent sailing from Havana, it is planned, on the first day of April. This gradual withdrawal, covering the period immediately preceding and succeeding the inauguration, on January 28, of President-elect Gomez, will provide against any possible disorder, and the arrangement, it is announced in Washington, has the entire approval of the incoming Cuban administration. The presidential electors met at Havana on December 19 and offi-



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HON. TRUMAN H. NEWBERRY.
(The new Secretary of the Navy.)

cially declared José Miguel Gomez and Alfredo Zayas President and Vice-President.

Sound Finances to Start With. Governor Magoon has authorized the new President to issue bonds to the amount of \$15,000,000 for each of the next three years, the money to be devoted to public works already undertaken, and including the sewerage and paving of the city of Havana and the installation of a water and sewer system in the city of Cienfuegos. Governor Magoon announces that all indebtedness of the provisional government up to November 1 last has been paid in full, and it is confidently predicted that this provisional government will close its administration without leaving any floating indebtedness,—indeed, with a real balance in the treasury.

The Overturn in Haiti. The latest (although, it is feared, not the last) Haitian revolution culminated during the first days of last month in the flight of President Nord Alexis, for the past six years at the head of the Haitian Government, and the assumption of supreme authority by Gen. Antoine Simon, the commander of the army of the victorious revolutionists. The formal-

have sat for ten years in the Commons, have held an important public office, or have been elected by the peers. In accordance with these and other provisions of the report the reorganized House of Lords would have a greatly reduced membership. From 608, the present membership, it would probably be reduced to approximately 350. In their report the Lords themselves admit that the party in power in the House of Commons should always be able to count on a substantial following in the upper house.

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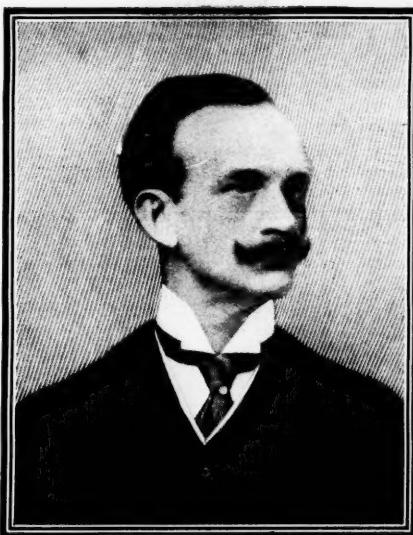
Have the Germans Forgiven man Moderate Radical party the Kaiser? The announcement that the German Moderate Radical party would introduce in the Reichstag a resolution providing for the creation of a High Impeachment Court before which a Chancellor can be brought to answer for derelictions in the constitutional duties of his sovereign or himself, made while the Kaiser has studiously abstained from speeches or participation in public functions for a whole month, led the world to believe that some actual change in the direction of real constitutional government was imminent in the German Empire. The heat of the debate in the Parliament, however, wore off, and the reference of the entire series of motions demanding ministerial responsibility to Parliament to a commission which will not report until the middle of the present month gave evidence of a determination on the part of the deputies not to press the matter to a final settlement. Chancellor von Bülow does not wish to antagonize the liberal members of the Parliament, because he needs their support to pass the government's bills for

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Perhaps in the next generation such clamor will produce vital results, but politically we are still in the primary grade, and are incapable of truly great achievements. If Germany would subject itself to some critical self-examination, it would see that the personal régime is principally due to the country's traditional, incurable lack of interest in politics. It has been content to let the Emperor, cabinet ministers, and government departments run the country's business in their own way. Such a system frequently leads to trouble, but the real seat of it, in our case, lies with the political apathy with which Germany is cursed.

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(A Bavarian view of the recent rebuke to the
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From *Jugend* (Munich).

An International Institute of Agriculture. What may be termed the first session of the real parliament of the world was held, late in November, in Rome. In opening the general assembly of the International Institute of Agriculture, in which forty-eight countries and dependencies took part, Signor Tittoni, the Italian Foreign Minister, eulogized the progressive spirit and generosity of King Victor Emmanuel III. in establishing the institute and endowing for its use a splendid marble palace in the grounds of the Villa Borghese, in the Italian capital. King Victor Emmanuel, who frankly admits that he was inspired in this enterprise by David Lubin, of California, who has urged the project for years and who represented the United States

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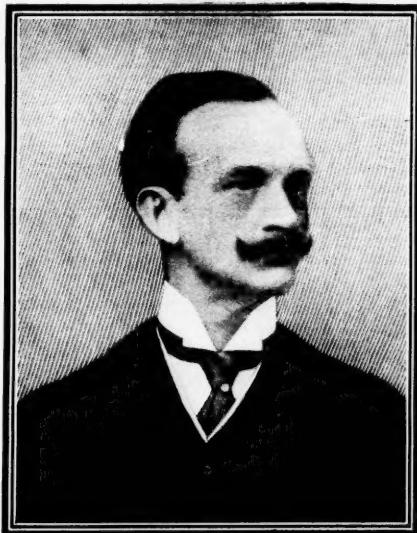
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MR. DAVID LUBIN, OF CALIFORNIA.

(To whose devotion and hard work for years is due the inauguration of the International Institute of Agriculture opened last month at Rome by King Victor Emmanuel.)

during the sessions of the institute, hopes that "not only will the institute diffuse highly useful information throughout the world about agricultural conditions and progress, but that it will also ameliorate the condition of a large section of mankind by its war upon the parasites of speculation." In setting forth the views of the government of the United States Mr. Lubin declared that the institute should secure and publish data of interest to agriculturists in all parts of the world, and that such intelligence should be communicated to the secretary-general of the institute without delay, so that such information,—as to crop conditions, weather forecasts, prices, and so forth,—might be published to the world simultaneously, and at proper times and seasons. It cannot fail to be gratifying to all Americans to learn that success has crowned Mr. Lubin's efforts in this laudable enterprise. It is, moreover, particularly appropriate that this institute should have its home in Italy, which of all Old World countries has during recent years made the most noteworthy progress in scientific agriculture.

Will Austria and Servia Go to War? It is becoming evident that if actual hostilities break out in southeastern Europe the responsibility will lie either with Austria-Hungary or with Servia. Acts of aggression by the military forces of both these nations upon the other are constantly reported. Dr. E. J. Dillon and other keen observers of affairs in the Balkans assert that there is an insurrection brewing in Bosnia among the Serb population, that this will goad the Servians to attack some Austrian outposts, and that the forces of the Dual Monarchy will then advance against Belgrade. The absorption of Servia has been an ambition of Austro-Hungarian statesmen for many years. Dr. Dillon says on this point:

As things now stand Servia has virtually ceased to exist, and with her political death the Slavs of southern Europe will also be extinguished as a political force. To-day Servia lives, and has her political being solely because Austria permits it. But she has hardly any outlet for her agricultural exports, except what the oracles of Vienna and Budapest may from time to time allow. A few weeks ago the Austrian authorities kept back wagon-loads of ammunition destined for Belgrade. A few days ago Servian steamers in the Danube were turned back by order of Austrians in Zemlin, because,—it was alleged,—Austrian gunboats



THE AUSTRIAN KAISER AND THE BULGARIAN CZAR.

(These two monarchs are regarded by the rest of Europe as the evil genuses of the Balkan crisis. From a photograph taken during Czar Ferdinand's recent visit to Vienna.)

were practicing. In a word, King Peter's Serbia is scarcely more than semi-independent, while all the other Serbs are set apart to be Germanized, assimilated, swallowed up.

*Will Cash
Quiet
the Balkans?* Then, say these keen observers, when Belgrade is occupied by Austrian troops, the fate of peace in Europe will depend on how far Russia will go in espousing the cause of the Balkan Slavs. Although these peoples,—Roumanians, Bulgarians, Servians, and Montenegrins,—look to the Muscovite Empire to protect them against Austria, it is not certain that they can count on any active support from the Czar's government, although the entire Russian people and press are much incensed over what is termed Austria's perfidy. The second session of the Duma, which began in St. Petersburg on October 28, while discussing the Balkan question with animation, did not venture to take any radical action on the subject. Perhaps, after all, the entire situation will be cleared by the payment of money. Both Austria and Bulgaria have agreed, in principle, to reimburse Turkey for her loss of nominal sovereignty over the territory involved. How much money is to be paid remains, as yet, to be settled. In the meantime, the Turkish boycott of Austrian goods continues, and Turkey, Servia, and Montenegro are gravitating into a triple alliance, while anti-Austrian demonstrations are taking place in Italy and many demands are heard in Hungary and in Austria itself for the resignation of Count Aehrenthal, the venturesome Foreign Minister of the Dual Monarchy.

The Parliament at Constantinople. Amid great rejoicing and some disorder is reported, the first Turkish Parliament was inaugurated on December 17 at Constantinople, the Sultan driving in state to preside at the opening ceremonies. The Parliament of 1876 sat but for a few weeks and was never meant to endure, so that this may be accurately termed the first Turkish Parliament. The elections, as far as the press dispatches have reported them, have been carried on with dignity and without overt interference from the government or from the reactionary elements. The balloting was on a system modified after the German and Russian methods, three sets of electors being chosen, the third set choosing the representative. The election laws provide that one deputy shall be chosen for each 50,000 males of the population. The entire

chamber with two houses is to consist of 240 deputies. A dramatic feature of the campaign in Constantinople was the procession, on December 3, through the streets of the capital by crowds of the populace, in the midst of which city officials, guarded by troops, carried the municipal ballot-boxes. In his speech from the throne Sultan Abdul Hamid denounced Bulgaria and Austria-Hungary for their "illegal, unfriendly acts," and closed by saying:

When I first proclaimed a constitution thirty-two years ago there were many difficulties in the way of its execution, and I was advised to suspend it momentarily. In the interval great efforts were made toward popular education and for the establishment of institutions of a nature calculated to elevate the public enlightenment. I am now happy to know that the people are more able to understand the benefits of a constitution, and I was heartily glad to restore it, notwithstanding influential advice to the contrary. My will is definite and unalterable, and henceforth the constitution will regulate the affairs of the nation. . . . The budget of the empire will be presented to you, the financial situation being the chief matter for your consideration. Public instruction and the strengthening of the army and navy will also occupy the most serious attention of my government. . . . I am happy to see assembled here the representatives of the people, and heartily salute them, it being my will that the constitution be faithfully observed and jealously guarded. I pray that God bless your labors and grant divine assistance.

The Problems of Russia. The large issues which will come up for discussion in the third Russian Duma at its second session, which began (as already noted) on October 28, are the questions of finances and the dissolution of the communal-land system, in domestic affairs, and the unrest in Persia and the uncertainty over a general European-Balkan conference,—the last having already strained Austro-Russian relations nearly to the breaking point,—in the empire's foreign relations. The imperial revenues for 1900 have been estimated at \$2,000,000,000, and the expenditures at \$2,076,000,000. To meet this deficit of \$76,000,000, and to provide also for the "unforeseen requirements" of the army and navy and railway construction, the Duma, at its session on December 11 authorized an external loan of \$225,000,000. The internal condition of the empire is reported as quiet, although early last month the *Russ*, of St. Petersburg, announced "from official sources" that the average of executions for the past three months had been seventeen daily. Poland has been de-



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CHINA'S "ENVOY OF GRATITUDE" TO THE UNITED STATES.

(His Excellency, Prince Tang Shao-Yi, who is now in this country to convey the thanks of his government for the remission of the Boxer indemnity.)

clared absolved from martial law, and after a campaign of almost three months the empire has been pronounced absolutely free from cholera. As we go to press the cable dispatches are saying that Russia and Austria have finally agreed, in principle, to the summoning of a general European congress, to consider the Balkan question. Such agreement, if actually achieved, will mean the meeting of a congress, since the rest of the Continent has already expressed its willingness to participate.

What Is Happening in India? To the almost interminable story of famine, plague, class riots, industrial boycotts, and seditious speeches which have come to us from British India during the past few years is now being added reports of bomb explosions and murderous assaults upon high British officials. For a decade or more there has been open disaffection in Britain's Indian empire, due largely to conditions beyond the power of the British Government to change. During, however, the administration of Lord Curzon, who preceded Lord Minto, the present Viceroy, two specific causes of complaint,—

the partition of Bengal in spite of the bitter opposition of the Bengalese, and the change in the long-established self-government of Calcutta and other larger cities,—have indicated a lack of sympathy and understanding on the part of the British authorities which the Hindus find harder to bear than more vigorous forms of persecution. British rule has undoubtedly accomplished great things for India. The Englishman has been a just ruler, but he has never really understood or truly sympathized with Hindu life and ideals.

Putting Down Sedition. Now the imperial government is aroused, and only last month the Indian Council passed a bill providing for speedier trial of persons implicated in plots and other political offenses against the imperial government. There have been many trials, executions, and deportations. In his proclamation of November 1, last, just half a century after Queen Victoria announced that India would be a viceroyalty and no longer ruled by the East India Company, King Edward set forth the imperial policy toward the dependency in these words:

The charge confided to my government concerns the destinies of countless multitudes of men now and for ages to come; and it is a paramount duty to repress with a stern arm guilty conspiracies that have no just cause and no serious aim. These conspiracies I know to be abhorrent to the loyal and faithful character of the vast hosts of my Indian subjects, and I will not suffer them to turn me aside from my task of building up the fabric of security and order.

The educated Hindu sees his own debased condition and compares it with that of other Asiatic peoples,—the Japanese, the Persian, and now the Turkish,—who elect members of parliament and are deemed worthy of independent existence, if not of an open alliance with Great Britain. Lord Morley, Secretary of State for Indian Affairs, in a recent speech declared that an enlightened and just British policy toward India demands that "we no longer keep Indians at arms' length or shut the door of the council chamber of the paramount power against them."

The New Regime in China. While the remains of Kuang-hsü, the late Emperor of China, were being interred with impressive barbaric ceremonies in the Forbidden City at Peking, the imperial Chinese envoy Tang Shao-yi, sent to this country by his government on a mission of good will, but par-

ticularly to thank the President and Congress for remitting the larger part of the Boxer indemnity, was reading to President Roosevelt the letter from the late Chinese monarch, which closes with these cordial sentences: "Long may your Excellency enjoy good health and happiness. May the American people be blessed with prosperity and peace. These are our hearty wishes." Ambassador Tang, who is a graduate of an English and an American university, and speaks English perfectly, expects during his stay in the United States to study the science of constitutional government and public finance. In China itself it is becoming increasingly evident that Prince Chun, the regent, is a man of intelligence and progressive ideas, and that his rule will be marked by many reforms. The baby Emperor, Pu-Yi, was formally enthroned on November 20, under the official title of Hsuen Tung. An imperial edict issued in his name pledges the throne to continue the policy inaugurated by the late Emperor, especially the program providing for the granting of a constitution.

Why Not Lower Cable Rates? Nothing is perhaps more significant of the modern fraternization of the world and of its peoples than the increase and improvement in the means of rapid communication between virtually all portions of the earth's surface. Following quickly upon the establishment of a greatly reduced first-class postage rate between the United States and Great Britain came the agreement between this country and Germany, in accordance with which, beginning the first day of the present month, the first-class letter rate on mail sent directly from one of these countries to the other shall be the same as the domestic rate in each country. The same cable dispatches which announced this agreement, by a singular coincidence, also described the proceedings of a mass-meeting in London under semi-governmental auspices, held to consider the question of a reduction in ocean cable rates. For twenty years the cable system between the United States and Great Britain has remained practically unchanged, although ocean steamship traffic has greatly increased and the time and cost greatly decreased during that period.

An International Agitation. The British Government, as well as our own, is deeply interested in a reduction of cable rates. The present tolls are very

high, and, moreover, the management of the two Anglo-American cable companies, holding as they do a monopoly of trans-oceanic communication, has not been at all receptive to suggestions of improvement in the service. That veteran postal reformer, Mr. Henniker Heaton, M.P., has already begun a campaign for government control of existing cables or the laying of a new one which, before long, should give us a four-cent a word rate, as against a present toll of 25 cents. Mr. Rodolphe Lemieux, the Canadian Postmaster-General, is openly advocating the laying of an Anglo-Canadian cable, to be under government control, and many eminent Englishmen have joined in the demand. The New York Board of Trade and Transportation has passed resolutions authorizing a committee to investigate the situation, and there are many American as well as British advocates of Mr. Heaton's plan for holding a conference of all the postmasters-general of Europe to discuss the matter.

"Peace on Earth." In these opening days of a new year it will be profitable to recall the notable progress that is being made toward a real world peace by the conclusion of arbitration treaties between almost literally all the nations of the globe. The following table of treaties concluded since the first Hague Conference is compiled from lists published in the latest number of the *American Journal of International Law*:

Argentina, 5: with Paraguay (1899), Bolivia (1902), Chile (1902), Brazil (1905), Italy (1907).

Austria-Hungary, 3: with Switzerland (1904), Great Britain (1905), Portugal (1906).

Belgium, 7: with Switzerland (1904), Russia (1904), Norway and Sweden (1904), Denmark (1905), Greece (1905), Roumania (1905), Spain (1905).

Bolivia, 2: with Peru (1901), Spain (1902). *Brazil*, 1: with Argentina (1905).

Chile, 1: with Argentina (1902).

Colombia, 2: with Spain (1902), Peru (1905). *Denmark*, 9: with Netherlands (1904), Belgium (1905), France (1905), Great Britain (1905), Italy (1905), Russia (1905), Spain (1905), Portugal (1907), United States (1908).

France, 10: with Great Britain (1903), Italy (1903), Netherlands (1904), Norway and Sweden (1904), Spain (1904), Sweden and Norway (1904), Switzerland (1904), Denmark (1905), Portugal (1906), United States (1908).

Germany, 1: with Great Britain (1904).

Great Britain, 11: with France (1903), Germany (1904), Italy (1904), Norway and Sweden (1904), Portugal (1904), Spain (1904), Switzerland (1904), Austria-Hungary (1905), Denmark (1905), Netherlands (1905), United States (1908).

- Greece*, 1: with Belgium (1905).
Guatemala, 1: with Spain (1902).
Honduras, 1: with Spain (1905).
Italy, 9: with France (1903), Great Britain (1904), Switzerland (1904), Denmark (1905), Peru (1905), Portugal (1905), Argentina (1907), Mexico (1907), United States (1908).
Japan, 1: with United States (1908).
Mexico, 2: with Spain (1902), United States (1908).
Netherlands, 5: with Denmark (1904), France (1904), Portugal (1904), Great Britain (1905), United States (1908).
Norway, 2: with Sweden (1905), United States (1908).
Norway and Sweden, 6: with Belgium (1904), France (1904), Russia (1904), Switzerland (1904), Portugal (1905), Spain (1905).
Paraguay, 1: with Argentina (1899).
Peru, 3: with Bolivia (1901), Spain (1902), Italy (1905).
Portugal, 10: with Great Britain (1904), Netherlands (1904), Spain (1904), Italy (1905), Norway and Sweden (1905), Switzerland (1905), Austria-Hungary (1906), France (1906), Denmark (1907), United States (1908).
Roumania, 1: with Belgium (1905).
Russia, 3: with Belgium (1904), Norway and Sweden (1904), Denmark (1905).
Spain, 14: with Bolivia (1902), Colombia (1902), Guatemala (1902), Mexico (1902), Uruguay (1902), France (1904), Great Britain (1904), Portugal (1904), Belgium (1905), Denmark (1905), Honduras (1905), Norway and Sweden (1905), Switzerland (1907), United States (1908).
United States, 12: with France (1908), Great Britain (1908), Mexico (1908), Norway (1908), Spain (1908), Denmark (1908), Italy (1908), Japan (1908), Netherlands (1908), Portugal (1908), Sweden (1908), Switzerland (1908).
Uruguay, 1: with Spain (1902).
Sweden, 2: with Norway (1905), United States (1908).
Switzerland, 8: with Austria-Hungary (1904), Belgium (1904), France (1904), Great Britain (1904), Italy (1904), Portugal (1905), Spain (1907), United States (1908).

Most of these treaties bind the signatories to submit to the Hague Tribunal all differences in so far as they do not affect "the independence, the honor, the vital interests, or the exercise of sovereignty of the contracting countries, and provided it has been impossible to obtain an amicable solution by means of direct diplomatic negotiations or by any other method of conciliation." The two so-called "international" treaties of January 29 and 30, 1902, not included in the above list, were concluded (1) between most of the South and Central American republics, with Mexico and Santo Domingo, making arbitration obligatory in all disputes excepting those affecting national honor or independence, by reference to the Hague Tribunal, and (2) between the United

States and most of the South and Central American republics and Mexico, Santo Domingo, and Haiti, providing for the reference to the Hague Tribunal of all pecuniary claims.

*The
Anniversaries
of 1908.*

The astrologers would have us believe that in certain years throughout the ages remarkable conjunctions of heavenly bodies and other celestial interrelations so influence the human character and physique that children born at these times become great and commanding in numbers far exceeding the appearances of geniuses in other years. If so, there must have been a remarkable manifestation of celestial phenomena in the year 1809, for a surprisingly large number of men and women who have commanded fame and greatness first saw the light in that year. During those twelve months occurred the births of these American celebrities: Hannibal Hamlin, Park Benjamin, Gen. Joseph E. Johnston, Cyrus McCormick, Oliver Wendell Holmes, Abraham Lincoln, and Edgar Allan Poe. President Andrew Johnson was born December 29, 1808, so he very nearly comes into this charmed period. Among eminent Englishmen whose careers belong also to our own world of thought were: Charles Darwin, William E. Gladstone, Alfred Lord Tennyson, John Stuart Blackie, Elizabeth Barrett Browning, Edward Fitzgerald, and Alexander W. Kinglake. In the same year Felix Mendelssohn Bartholdy was born in Austria, Pierre Joseph Proudhon in France, and Frederic Francois Chopin in Poland. There are to be celebrations in this country and in England, and in some cases throughout the civilized world, as well, of the anniversaries of Holmes, Lincoln, Poe, Darwin, Gladstone, and Tennyson. In the United States and England last month was celebrated the third centenary of the poet John Milton, who was born December 9, 1609. All Protestant Europe and America will take note of the four-hundredth anniversary of John Calvin, who was born in Switzerland in 1509, while England will commemorate the bicentenary of old "Sam" Johnson, who first saw the light 200 years ago. Americans, finally, will make historic commemoration upon one occasion of the Fulton steamboat triumph, which was begun in 1807, and the discovery of the Hudson River in 1609, besides celebrating, with their Canadian neighbors, the discovery of Lake Champlain by the old French navigator in 1609.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From November 20 to December 18, 1908.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

December 7.—The Sixtieth Congress meets for its final session.... The House authorizes the Ways and Means Committee to summon witnesses and take testimony under oath at tariff hearings.

December 8.—The President's annual message is read in both branches.

December 9.—In the Senate, Mr. Dolliver (Rep., Iowa) introduces a bill providing for Government supervision of securities of railroad, telegraph, and telephone companies engaged in interstate commerce.... The House passes the bill providing for the thirteenth census.

December 10.—The Senate, in executive session, ratifies arbitration treaties with China and Peru and naturalization treaties with Honduras, Brazil, and Uruguay.... The House discusses a bill providing for the Government investigation of labor disputes.

December 11.—The House passes the Legislative Appropriation bill; in accordance with a resolution offered by Mr. Perkins (Rep., N.Y.), a committee of five is appointed to consider President Roosevelt's remarks on the Secret Service in his recent message.

December 12.—The House passes a bill providing for the protection of aliens in the United States and adopts a resolution fixing the boundary between Colorado, New Mexico, and Oklahoma.

December 14.—In the Senate, a special message from President Roosevelt on the Brownsville affair is received, and Mr. Foraker (Rep., Ohio) speaks in defense of the negro soldiers.... The House passes bills prohibiting bucketshops and providing for eighty-five-cent gas in the District of Columbia.

December 15.—President Roosevelt transmits a special message on the Panama Canal matter.... In the Senate, Mr. Foraker (Rep., Ohio) introduces a resolution asking information about the Government's investigation of the Brownsville case.

December 16.—The Senate adopts a resolution providing for an investigation of the Secret Service; Mr. Lodge (Rep., Mass.) defends the President's policy in the Brownsville affair, and the resolution of Mr. Foraker (Rep., Ohio) regarding the employment of detectives is adopted.... The House considers a bill to revise the penal code, an amendment aimed at transactions in "futures" being defeated.

December 17.—President Roosevelt transmits a special message recommending a single head or governor for the District of Columbia, in place of three commissioners.... A resolution introduced in the Senate by Mr. Rayner (Dem., Md.), asking information about the President's authority over the Marine Corps, is referred to the Committee on Naval Affairs.... The House,

with one dissenting vote, adopts a resolution asking the President to transmit evidence of deeds by any members of the House which should make them fear a Secret Service investigation.

December 19.—Both branches adjourn for the holiday recess.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

November 20.—The Ways and Means Committee of the House of Representatives hears arguments for and against raising the tariff on lumber.

November 22.—The Democratic National Committee gives out a statement showing receipts for the national campaign of \$620,644.77, and expenditures of \$619,410.66.

November 24.—The Iowa Legislature elects Gov. Albert B. Cummins (Rep.) United States Senator to succeed the late William B. Allison.

November 26.—President Roosevelt appoints Samuel B. Donnelly, of New York, Public Printer, to succeed John S. Leech.

November 27.—Chairman Payne, of the House Committee on Ways and Means, replies to criticisms of the tariff hearings.

November 28.—President Roosevelt invites Secretary Root to head a commission for the reorganization of the navy.

December 1.—Truman H. Newberry succeeds Victor H. Metcalf as Secretary of the Navy.... President Roosevelt issues an order placing more than 15,000 fourth-class postmasters under the Civil Service law.... President Roosevelt appoints Daniel J. Keefe Commissioner-General of Immigration, to succeed Frank P. Sargent.

December 2.—The National Monetary Commission holds a hearing in Washington.

December 4.—The special grand jury investigating primary-election frauds in the city of Chicago reported that it would appear that an honest election had never been held in that city.

December 5.—A caucus of Democratic members of the House of Representatives elects Champ Clark, of Missouri, minority leader.

December 6.—Correspondence between President Roosevelt and William Dudley Foulke, of Indiana, regarding the Panama Canal, is made public by the latter.

December 7.—President Roosevelt appoints Rufus H. Thayer judge of the United States court at Shanghai, China, to succeed Lebbeus R. Wilfley, resigned.... Panama Canal bonds are awarded by the United States Treasury Department.

December 9.—A caucus of Republican United States Senators unanimously elects Senator Eugene Hale, of Maine, to succeed the late Senator W. B. Allison as leader of the majority in

the Senate....President-elect Taft and Speaker Cannon, of the House of Representatives, hold a conference on tariff revision.

December 10.—The jury in the case of Abraham Ruef, of San Francisco, on trial for the third time for bribery, returns a verdict of guilty.

December 11.—A new trial is refused to four of the defendants in the Pennsylvania capitol conspiracy cases.

December 18.—President-elect Taft announces the appointment of United States Senator Philander C. Knox, of Pennsylvania, as Secretary of State.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

November 20.—Troops are sent to the south of Haiti to suppress the revolt under the leadership of General Simon....The British House of Commons, by a vote of 350 to 113, passes the Licensing bill.

November 23.—The German Reichstag resumes debate on the German Finance bill....The British House of Commons passes the Land Purchase bill on first reading.

November 24.—The Shah of Persia revokes his proclamation refusing to grant a constitution....It is announced that during President Castro's absence in Europe Vincente Gomez will act as President of Venezuela.

November 25.—The Education bill is brought up on second reading in the British House of Commons; the Irish Parliamentary party decides to oppose the measure....The Brazilian Chamber of Deputies votes the coffee loan of \$75,000,000....The Italian Chamber reassembles in Rome.

November 27.—The British House of Lords, by a vote of 272 to 96, rejects the government's Licensing bill.

December 1.—The German imperial estimates show that the government must borrow \$50,750,000.

December 2.—Nord Alexis is deposed from the presidency of Haiti and forced to flee; a provisional government is established....German Liberals introduce in the Reichstag five motions demanding that the constitution be changed so as to make the ministers responsible to the people....Pu-Yi, under the name of Hsuan Tung, ascends the throne of China; an edict granting amnesty and rewarding officials is issued....Martial law is proclaimed in Prague.

December 4.—The British Government withdraws the Education bill from the House of Commons.

December 6.—General Simon temporarily assumes the presidency of Haiti....The budget committee of the Russian Duma approves the government's plan for an external loan of \$225,000,000.

December 8.—General Simon, the new President of Haiti, appoints a cabinet....The French Chamber of Deputies votes in favor of the death penalty for certain crimes.

December 11.—The Italian Minister of Finance announces that the surplus for the year 1907-'08 was \$7,500,000....The Russian Duma

authorizes the proposed foreign loan of \$225,000,000 without knowledge of its terms.

December 12.—The Young Turkish candidates in the Constantinople election receive large majorities over their competitors.

December 16.—Nicholai A. Khomiakov, president of the Russian Duma, resigns office on account of criticisms of his conduct made upon the floor of the assembly.

December 17.—The Turkish Parliament is opened by the Sultan....The Portuguese cabinet resigns....General Simon is unanimously elected President of Haiti.

December 18.—The Council of the Russian Empire unanimously approves the bill for a loan of \$225,000,000.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

November 20.—The Servian Government calls attention to Austrian military preparations.

November 21.—Following a report that a body of Austrians had been fired upon by Servian troops, the Austrian patrol on the Servian border is strengthened.

November 22.—Austrian troops repulse a band of Servians crossing the Bosnian border; three Austrians and seventeen Servians are killed.

November 23.—It is announced that Bulgaria and Turkey have reached a basis of agreement by which Turkey will receive \$8,000,000 for the Oriental Railway property and \$12,000,000 as the capital value of the Rumelian tribute.

November 24.—The protocol in reference to the Casablanca arbitration is signed in Paris by the French Ambassador and the German acting Foreign Secretary.

November 28.—It is announced that an agreement has been reached between the United States and Japan with the object of securing the integrity of China and the "open door."....Montenegro intimates to the powers its claim to Spizza, a port on the Adriatic, now in possession of Austria.

November 30.—The United States and Japan exchange notes defining international policy in the Far East.

December 2.—An arrangement between the United States and Germany for a penny-post service beginning on January 1, 1909, is announced....Tang Shao-yi, special Chinese envoy to the United States, is presented to President Roosevelt and hands him a letter from the late Emperor of China, thanking this Government for the remission of a part of the Boxer indemnity.

December 4.—The conference of the powers called by Great Britain to frame a code of laws for naval warfare and for the formation of the international prize court recommended by the Hague Congress is opened at the British Foreign Office in London....Mulai Hafiq announces his acceptance of the Algeciras convention.

December 7.—The Russian Government issues a statement outlining its position regarding the Balkan situation.

December 10.—President Castro of Venezuela lands at Bordeaux, France, the French Government having consented to this on the understanding that Castro is prepared to negotiate on the French claims.

December 11.—Dutch warships, cleared for action, sail from Willemstad for Venezuelan waters.... The War Department of the United States gives out the details of the plans for the withdrawal of American troops from Cuba.

December 12.—The Dutch cruiser *Gelderland* seizes the Venezuelan coast-guard vessel *Alix* near Puerto Cabello.

December 13.—It is announced that the Turkish cabinet has decided to reject as inadequate the Austrian offer of compensation for annexation.... The Venezuelan coast-guard vessel *23 de Mayo* is captured without resistance by the Dutch battleship *Jacob van Heemskerk*, near Cumana.

December 15.—Russia accepts Austria's proposals regarding an international congress on the Balkan question, but leaves the annexation question subject to separate negotiations among the powers.

December 17.—The United States grants recognition to General Simon, unanimously elected President of Haiti.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

November 20.—The French Chamber of Deputies votes a subvention of \$20,000 for the establishment of airship garages and prizes to aviators.

November 21.—Samuel Gompers is re-elected president of the American Federation of Labor at the annual convention in Denver.

November 22.—A committee of the Auto Club of France offers a prize for aviation of \$40,000.... Madame Curie is appointed chief professor of physics at the University of Paris.

November 23.—A cyclone in western Arkansas kills three persons and destroys property valued at \$450,000.... In a riot between German and Italian students at the University of Vienna fifteen persons are seriously injured by bullets.... Lord Roberts, in addressing the British House of Lords, warns England that an army of 1,000,000 men is needed to guard against invasion.

November 25.—Over 100 lives are lost by the burning of the steamer *Sardinia*, of the Ellerman Line, at the entrance to the harbor of Valletta; the captain dies at his post while attempting to run the vessel ashore.... In a Marathon race run in Madison Square Garden, New York, Dorando, the Italian, beats Hayes, the American, by forty-five seconds.

November 26.—The Panama liner *Finance* sinks in a collision with the *Georgic* in a fog off Sandy Hook; four lives are lost.... The arrest in Paris of Madame Steinheil in connection with the murder of her husband and Madame Japy causes great excitement.

November 28.—One hundred and thirty-eight miners are killed by an explosion in coal mines near Pittsburg.

November 30.—The American battleship fleet leaves Manila on its homeward voyage.

December 2.—The diamond jubilee of the accession of Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria is celebrated at Vienna.... The American Mining Congress is opened in Pittsburgh.... The convention of the Federal Council of Protestant Churches opens in Philadelphia.

December 3.—Seventeen lives are lost in a gale which drives fishing boats on the rocks off the Newfoundland coast.

December 4.—An agreement reached at a conference with the National Board of Mediation at Washington averts a threatened strike of engineers on the Pennsylvania Railroad.

December 5.—The receivers of the Westinghouse Electric & Manufacturing Company and the Securities Investment Company are discharged in the United States Circuit Court at Pittsburgh.

December 7.—The Southern Commercial Congress meets in Washington.

December 8.—The National Conservation Commission holds a joint meeting with the Governors of the States in Washington.

December 9.—The award of the Nobel prizes is as follows: Literature, Dr. Rudolph Eucken, of Jena; physics, Dr. Gabriel Lippman, of Paris; chemistry, Dr. Ernest Rutherford, director of the Physical Laboratory of the University of Manchester, England; medicine, divided between Paul Ehrlich, of Berlin, and Dr. Elie Metchnikov, of the Pasteur Institute, Paris.

December 12.—A premature explosion of a joint blast of dynamite in the Bas Obispo cut in the Panama Canal Zone kills more than thirty men and injures fifty.

December 14.—Phelps, Dodge & Co., of New York, organize a company with \$50,000,000 capital to control copper mines.

December 16.—Fifteen persons are killed and thirty injured in a railway collision in a tunnel near Limoges, France.

December 18.—Wilbur Wright, in his aeroplane at Le Mans, France, remains in the air 1 hour 53 minutes and 50 seconds; in a second flight he reaches a height of 360 feet.

OBITUARY.

November 20.—Joseph Bryan, owner of the Richmond *Times-Dispatch*, 63.

November 22.—Brig.-Gen. John Greene, U. S. A., retired, veteran of the Mexican and Civil wars, 83.

November 23.—General Sir Henry Clement Wilkinson, a well-known British capitalist of Western Canada, 71.

November 24.—Lord Glenesk, proprietor of the London *Morning Post*, 77.

November 25.—Prof. John H. Wright, dean of the Harvard Graduate School, 57.... Prof. George A. Bartlett, for many years connected with the German department of Harvard College, 65.

November 26.—Dr. John Bell Henneman, of the University of the South, 45.... Ex-Congressman Cyrus Hare, of Texas, Mexican veteran and Confederate soldier, 81.... Rear-Admiral Alexander Wilson Russell, U. S. N., re-

tired, 84....Brother Abraham, for ten years president of Rock Hill College, Maryland, 67.

November 27.—George Raines, a well-known lawyer of Rochester, N. Y., 62....Jean Albert Gaudry, the French scientist, 81.

November 30.—Richard H. Lindsay, the Washington correspondent of the Kansas City Star, 43.

December 2.—Dr. Andrew J. McCosh, one of the leading surgeons of New York City, 50.

December 5.—Rear-Admiral Joseph Bulloch Coghlan, U. S. N., retired, 64.

December 6.—Edward F. C. Young, New Jersey's leading financier, 72....Prof. William Ireland Knapp, formerly of Yale and Chicago universities, 73.

December 7.—Lieut. Carl Zerah W. Torrey,

acting Inspector-General of the Department of Visayas, P. I., 53.

December 9.—Prof. Oliver Wolcott Gibbs, senior member of the Harvard faculty, 87.

December 10.—Ex-Congressman Edward C. Venable, of Virginia, 56.

December 13.—Dr. Augustus le Plongeon, a well-known archeologist, 83....Chief William T. Belt, of the Washington, D. C., fire department, 63.

December 14.—Nicholas V. Muraviev, Russian Ambassador to Italy, 58....Herman Knickerbocker Viele, artist and author, 53.

December 15.—Donald Grant Mitchell (Ik Marvel), the American man of letters, 86.

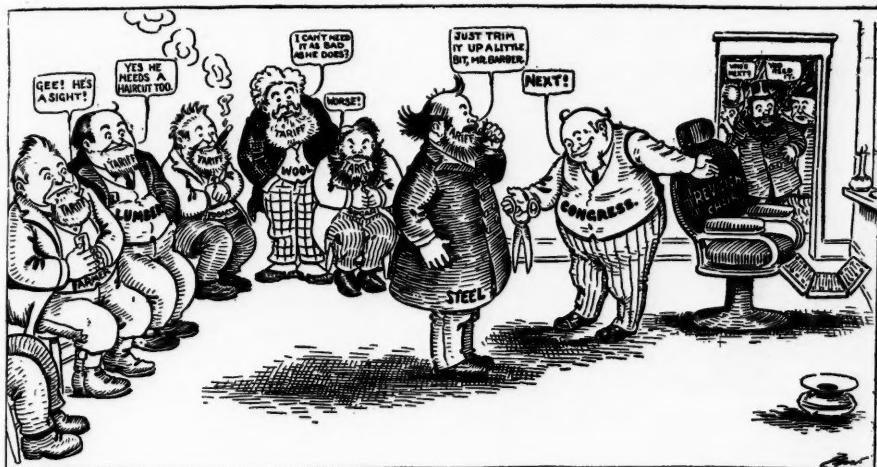
December 16.—Lieut.-Gen. Inouye, commanding the fourth division of the Japanese army at Asaki.

POPULAR AND ELECTORAL VOTE FOR PRESIDENT, 1908.

States.	POPULAR VOTE.								ELECTORAL VOTE.			
	Taft, Rep.	Bryan, Dem.	Debs, Soc.	Chadn, Pro.	Higgin, Ind.	Watson, Pop.	Preston, Soc. Lab.	Scattering.	Taft, Rep.	Bryan, Dem.	Taft, Rep.	Bryan, Dem.
Alabama	25,035	74,374	1,399	665	495	1,568	—	—	49,339	90,255	—	11
Arkansas	57,760	87,015	5,842	1,194	289	1,025	—	—	—	—	—	9
California	214,398	127,492	28,659	11,770	4,278	—	—	—	86,906	—	10	—
Colorado	123,700	126,444	7,374	5,559	—	—	—	—	—	2,944	—	—
Connecticut	112,813	68,255	5,113	2,380	728	—	608	—	44,569	—	—	—
Delaware	25,014	22,071	239	670	30	—	—	—	2,948	—	3	—
Florida	10,654	31,104	3,747	1,356	553	1,946	—	—	—	20,350	—	—
Georgia	41,692	72,350	584	1,059	77	16,965	—	—	—	30,658	—	13
Idaho	52,621	36,162	6,400	1,986	119	—	—	—	11,459	—	—	—
Illinois	629,932	450,810	39,711	29,364	7,724	633	1,680	400	179,122	—	27	—
Indiana	348,903	328,262	13,476	18,045	514	1,193	643	—	10,731	—	15	—
Iowa	275,210	200,771	8,287	9,837	404	—	—	—	74,439	—	13	—
Kansas	197,168	161,209	12,420	5,032	—	—	—	68	35,957	—	10	—
Kentucky	235,711	244,092	4,060	5,887	200	3,33	404	—	—	8,381	—	13
Louisiana	8,958	63,568	2,538	—	73	—	—	—	—	54,610	—	9
Maine	66,987	85,463	1,758	1,487	790	—	—	—	31,524	—	—	—
Maryland	116,513	115,904	2,823	3,302	485	—	—	—	605	—	2	6
Massachusetts	265,966	155,548	10,778	4,374	19,237	—	1,011	—	110,423	—	16	—
Michigan	335,580	175,771	11,586	16,974	760	—	1,066	63	159,809	—	14	—
Minnesota	195,786	109,433	14,469	10,114	523	—	—	—	83,233	—	11	—
Mississippi	4,392	60,287	978	—	—	1,276	—	—	—	55,885	—	10
Missouri	346,915	345,889	15,398	4,222	397	1,165	807	—	1,026	—	18	—
Montana	32,333	29,326	5,855	1,500	1,200	—	—	—	3,007	—	3	—
Nebraska	126,604	130,781	8,524	5,179	—	—	—	—	—	4,173	—	—
Nevada	10,214	10,655	2,029	—	415	—	—	—	—	441	—	3
New Hampshire	53,144	38,655	1,299	905	534	—	—	—	—	—	4	—
New Jersey	265,298	182,522	10,249	4,030	2,916	—	1,196	—	82,776	—	12	—
New York	870,070	667,468	83,451	22,667	35,817	—	8,877	—	202,602	—	39	—
North Carolina	114,887	136,928	345	—	—	—	—	—	—	22,041	—	12
North Dakota	57,771	32,909	2,405	1,453	38	—	—	—	—	—	4	—
Ohio	572,312	502,721	33,795	11,402	439	162	721	—	69,591	—	33	—
Oklahoma	110,558	122,406	21,779	—	274	435	—	—	—	11,838	—	—
Oregon	62,530	38,049	7,430	2,682	289	—	—	—	—	24,481	—	4
Pennsylvania	745,779	448,783	33,913	36,694	1,057	—	1,253	—	39,1904	—	34	—
Rhode Island	43,942	24,706	1,365	1,016	1,105	—	183	—	19,333	—	4	—
South Carolina	3,847	62,289	101	—	43	—	—	—	—	58,442	—	9
South Dakota	67,536	40,366	2,846	4,039	88	—	—	—	27,270	—	—	—
Tennessee	118,287	135,630	1,878	360	332	1,031	—	—	—	17,343	—	13
Texas	65,666	217,302	7,870	1,634	115	994	173	—	—	151,638	—	18
Utah	61,028	42,001	4,895	—	87	—	—	—	18,487	—	3	—
Vermont	39,552	11,496	—	802	804	—	—	39	28,053	—	4	—
Virginia	52,573	82,946	255	1,111	51	105	25	—	—	—	—	—
Washington	106,062	58,383	14,777	478	248	—	—	—	47,679	80,373	5	—
West Virginia	137,869	111,418	3,676	5,107	46	—	—	—	26,451	—	7	—
Wisconsin	248,673	166,707	28,146	11,579	—	—	—	—	81,936	—	13	—
Wyoming	20,846	14,918	1,715	66	64	—	—	—	5,928	—	3	—
Totals	7,678,183	6,407,340	426,337	248,881	83,688	29,144	18,709	556	1,819,672	548,829	321	162

Total vote, 14,887,838; Taft's plurality, 1,270,843; Taft's majority, 468,528.

CARTOONS ON TOPICS OF THE MONTH.



NO CALLS FOR A CLOSE SHAVE IN THE TARIFF REVISION SHOP!

None of the protected industries is clamoring for a close cut in the tariff rates affecting its own business, although each thinks his neighbor could stand a rather severe trimming.

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



BILL STANDS PAT.

Mr. Taft has taken a determined stand for the redemption by the Republican party of its pledge to the people for a satisfactory tariff revision.

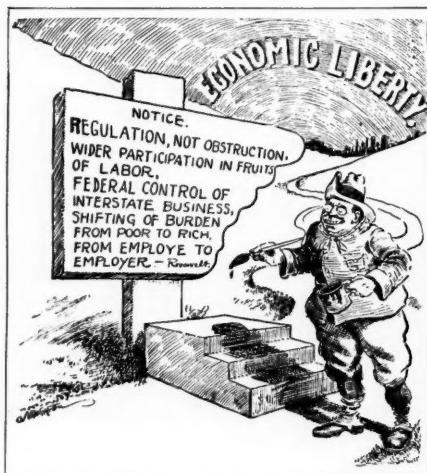
From the *Traveler* (Boston).



THE STANDPATTER'S NIGHTMARE.

Mr. Carnegie, as the enthusiastic golfer that he is, making a "drive" at the tariff ball on "Mr. Standpatter's" nose. (Apropos of his statements in favor of tariff reduction.)

From the *Pioneer-Press* (St. Paul).



ROOSEVELT'S FAREWELL MESSAGE POINTS THE WAY.

President Roosevelt, in his last annual message to Congress, makes many recommendations pointing toward the betterment of social and industrial conditions in the United States.

From the *Evening Herald* (Duluth).

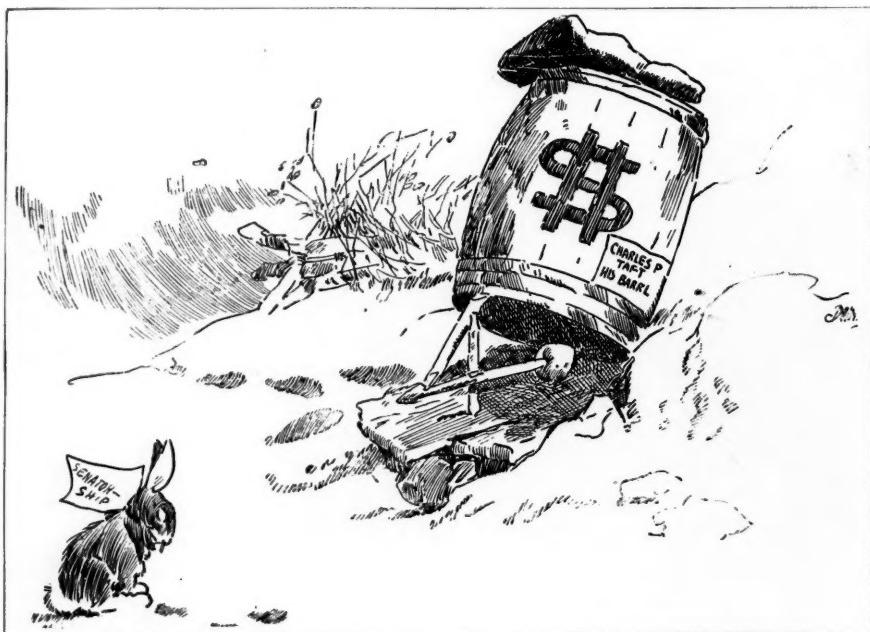


"AFTER YOU!"

SENATE AND HOUSE (tremulously): "You go first, my dear sir."

(Congress took offense at some passages in the President's annual message, and resolved to "rebut" him.)

From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn, N. Y.).



THE BARREL WILL GET YE IF YE DON'T WATCH OUT!

Mr. Charles P. Taft, brother of President-elect Taft, is reported as likely to capture Mr. Foraker's seat in the United States Senate.

From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland).



WHAT SAMMY WANTS THIS YEAR.

"No more ships this year, please, Santa Claus, but fill up the Panama Canal and the Mississippi River, so I can float what I have to advantage."

(One of the most urgent needs of the country is the improvement of our inland waterways, as shown forth by the National Rivers and Harbors Congress and allied organizations in the conferences held in Washington in December.)

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



UNCLE SAM'S RECORD OF FACTS IN THE STANDARD OIL HEARING.

From the *Traveler* (Boston).



STRIKING OIL AGAIN.

Mr. Frank P. Kellogg, the Government's special attorney, hammering the Standard Oil Company with questions at the hearing in New York City.

From the *Evening Telegram* (New York).



"GOOD WORK!"

Apropos of Mr. Taft's speech in favor of the obliteration of all sectional differences between the North and the South.

From the *Evening Mail* (New York).



THESE BE PARLOUS TIMES.

BOBS (Lord Roberts to John Bull): "The Germans'll get you if you don't watch out!"

From the *Sun* (Baltimore).



THE GUARDIANS.

(China may now feel more secure, for the United States and Japan have recently completed an agreement providing, among other things, for the maintenance of its territorial integrity.)

From the *Leader* (Cleveland).



"ALLIGATOR BAITS."

The revolutionary alligator may swallow up little Haiti unless Uncle Sam steps in and saves the helpless child.

From the *Journal* (Detroit).



AN UNFRIENDLY ACT.
Holland "annexing" two Venezuelan coast-guard vessels.

From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).

REPRESENTATIVE TAWNEY ON TARIFF REVISION.

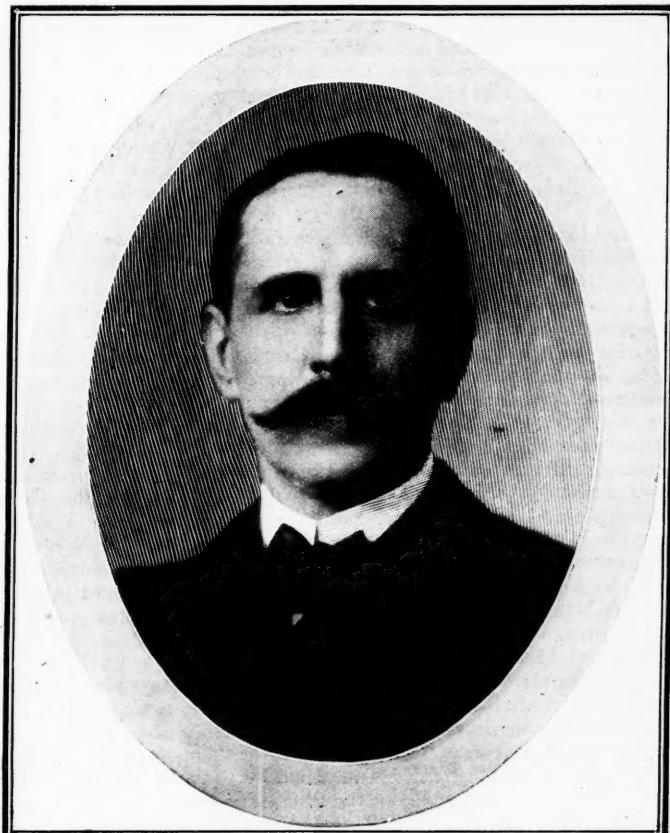
MY DEAR MR. SHAW:

I am in receipt of your letter of the 11th inst., in which you say:

There seems to be a general feeling that the tariff ought now to be revised with a good deal of thoroughness, and that this will mean the addition of some important commodities to the free list and an average reduction of the rates upon the standard lines of manufactured goods entering into competition with our metallic, textile, and other leading industries. It seems also to be the feeling that the tariff on foreign luxuries ought to be maintained for revenue purposes, and that in other respects the needs of the Treasury should be very carefully considered in view of predicted deficits.

You further say: "There has been widely disseminated the notion that Speaker Cannon and the leading members of the Ways and Means Committee favor the least possible change of the existing Dingley tariff, and will antagonize the efforts of those who declare that they stand in good faith upon the plank in the last national Republican platform." You then say that you "do not know any other man who is as well placed as you are to tell me frankly what is really the outlook for tariff revision," and then ask me if I will not write you "as to the status of this tariff-revision problem."

I agree with you entirely that the tariff should be revised with thoroughness, and while I hesitate to comply with your request, my reluctance in the matter would be far greater were it not for the fact, as you state, that my "own personal views are no secret either here or in my district," for I have heretofore expressed them with frankness to my associates in the House and in my campaign for re-election. Although you do not seem fully to appreciate the delicacy of my position, and the danger of my jeopardizing possible success in secur-



HON. JAMES A. TAWNEY, OF MINNESOTA.
(Chairman of the House Committee on Appropriations.)

ing the removal or the reduction of certain duties which I know the sentiment of the people in the Northwest demands, as I would be doing were I to answer your letter as fully as you desire, nevertheless, believing, as I do, that unless the people generally, and especially the Republicans, have the utmost confidence in the good faith of those who are charged with the responsibility of initiating tariff-revision legislation, any revision legislation may be entirely defeated, I will endeavor to give you what seems to me to be the status of this problem.

The duties in the existing tariff law were fixed at a rate which at the time of its enactment equalized, as nearly as practicable, the difference between the cost of production here and abroad. During the past five or six years there has been an industrial reorganization going on in almost every line of industry, the effect of which has been to reduce the cost of production in many industries. To the extent to which this cost has been reduced the relation between the duties then fixed and the then cost of production has been destroyed, leaving many duties higher than is necessary to afford adequate protection to American industry and American labor.

Recognizing this fact, the people generally in the Northwest, and to a greater or less extent throughout the country, have for some time favored a revision of the tariff. Before the meeting of the Republican National Convention, in Chicago, last June, the Republican membership of the House of Representatives concluded that there should be a revision of the tariff by the Sixty-first Congress, and believing that the national Republican party would declare in favor of such revision, the House of Representatives adopted a resolution authorizing and directing the Ways and Means Committee of the House to begin the work of tariff revision. This action was followed by the declaration of the National Republican Convention in favor of a general tariff revision. The Ways and Means Committee, in accordance with its instructions from the House, almost immediately after the adjournment of the last session, commenced work, through the agency of the several departments of the Government and other experts, to obtain the necessary information and data regarding the cost of production at home and abroad, and on the 10th of November they commenced public hearings on the tariff here at Washington. These hearings were open to every

one who desired to appear and present testimony on this subject.

The hearings had scarcely begun when, without any justification whatever, certain influential newspapers undertook to discredit the committee by representing to their readers that the Republican membership of the committee, judging from things which occurred at the hearings, did not intend to carry out in good faith the declaration of their party in favor of tariff revision. Those who have pursued this policy fail to recognize any distinction between what occurs at the trial of a case and what takes place in the jury room when the verdict of the jury is being made up. If the committee having jurisdiction of this subject should be discredited by successfully impugning the motives of the members it would of necessity discredit any tariff-revision legislation the committee might report to the House. Nothing could more seriously jeopardize genuine tariff revision than this, for in that case the report of the committee would not receive the support of a majority of the Republicans and would have the solid opposition of the Democrats, thereby making it possible for a haphazard revision of the tariff on the floor of the House, resulting in the necessity of doing what was done some years ago when the chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, who had reported a tariff bill to the House which was thrown open to general amendment in the House, was obliged, at the conclusion of the consideration of the bill, to move to recommit it, giving as a reason therefor that it had been "nibbled to pieces by pismires, and kicked to death by grasshoppers."

It is for this reason that I say that the agitation by the Democratic press and by some influential Republican newspapers to discredit the Ways and Means Committee before the real work of that committee has begun, is most unfortunate. It is believed, however, that the result of the recent conference between Mr. Taft, the Speaker of the House of Representatives, and the Republican membership of the Ways and Means Committee, together with the public statement of Mr. Taft showing his implicit confidence in the Republicanism and good faith of the Republicans in Congress in this matter, will be to counteract to some extent the effect of this unwarranted newspaper agitation and restore to the people that confidence which is absolutely essential to carrying out in spirit as well as in the letter, the

declaration of the Republican party in favor of tariff revision.

The work of revising the tariff is at any time, but especially under existing conditions, a difficult and a stupendous task. From my own knowledge of the men who are charged in the first instance with initiating this work, and from my association with some of them in the work of preparing the present tariff law, I feel that the country can rely absolutely upon that work being performed intelligently and not only in line with the declaration of the Republican party, but also in accordance with the tariff revision sentiment of the party. It will not be a revision that will be satisfactory to the Democratic party, nor will it be in line with the tariff policy of that party. If it were it would not be a Republican tariff revision or a revision by the friends of the policy of protection, which is the only kind of revision a majority of our people have declared for.

The details of this revision it is impossible for any one at this time to forecast. It will of necessity be the result of compromise and concession. Speaking for myself, personally, I believe when it is finally made a number of articles now on the dutiable list will be found on the free list, and that there will be an average reduction of rates, as you say, upon "the standard lines of manufactured goods entering into competition with our metallic, textile and other leading industries." Just what particular commodities will be transferred from the dutiable list to the free list, no one can now say, but it is my judgment that the items of rough lumber and wood pulp should, and can be, placed on the free list without detriment to either industry. The conditions surrounding the production of lumber in the United States and in Canada have so materially changed since the present duty of two dollars was placed on rough lumber that to my mind this article, together with wood pulp, can be safely, and with advantage to our people, admitted free.

You are right in suggesting that our present tariff on foreign luxuries ought to be maintained in order that the future needs of the Treasury may be taken care of out of current revenues. With our national expenditures as great as they are now, and constantly increasing, the new tariff law will have to provide additional revenue to meet increased appropriations for the public service, otherwise new sources of revenue will

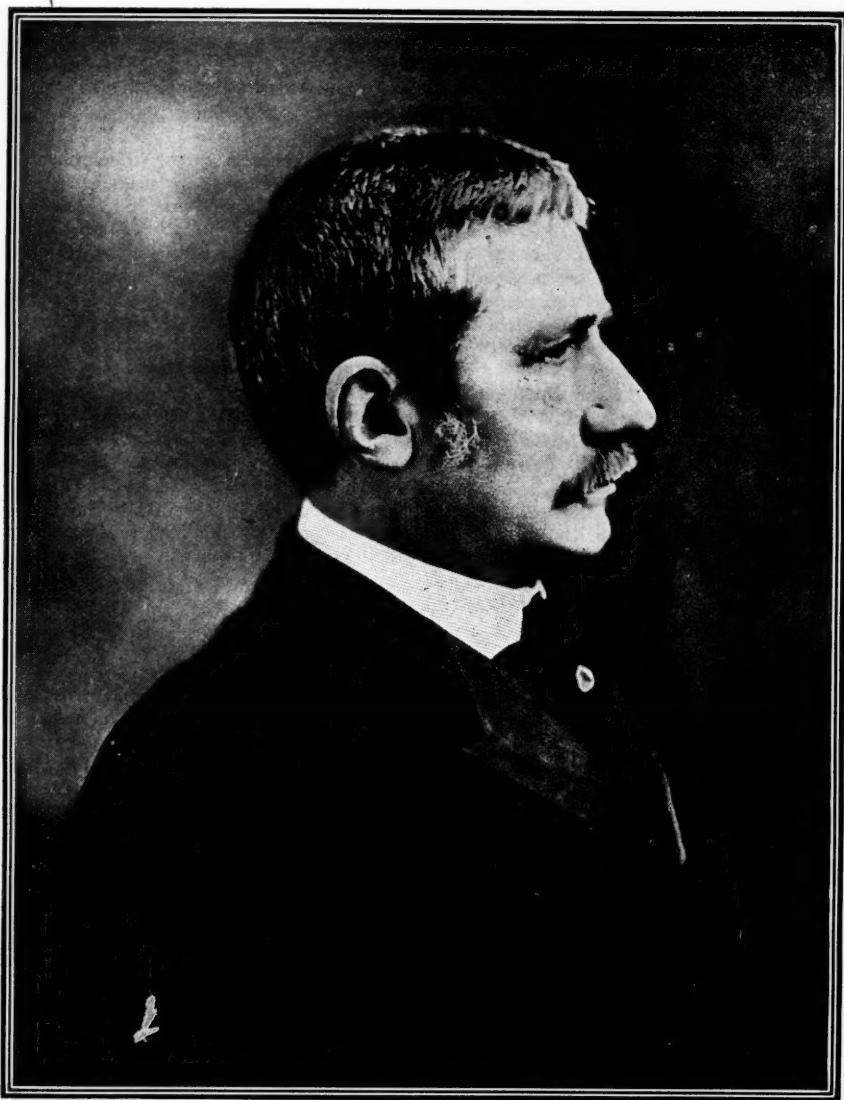
have to be found or the Government will be put to the necessity of issuing bonds or certificates of indebtedness to meet current expenses. This is one phase of the problem which confronts Congress, and especially those who are now engaged in preparing the proposed new tariff legislation, which I fear is not given that serious consideration by the public which it deserves.

The expenditures of the Government this fiscal year, including the expenditures for the Postoffice Department, will aggregate \$1,008,000,000. The estimates for national expenditures for the fiscal year, 1910, which are now before Congress, indicate an expenditure in amount practically equal to the expenditures for the current fiscal year. To meet these increased expenditures from the current revenues, these revenues must be materially increased. For that reason it is not at all improbable that some articles now on the free list may have to be transferred to the dutiable list with a slight duty imposed thereon. Otherwise the almost certain deficit of \$120,000,000 at the end of the current fiscal year, and the estimated deficit of \$143,000,000 at the close of the fiscal year 1910, cannot be provided for from current revenues.

Any proposed revision of the tariff always retards, and sometimes seriously disturbs, the business of the country. Now that we are just beginning to recover from the recent business depression, and since a Republican revision of the tariff is certain at the extra session of Congress to be convened soon after the inauguration of Mr. Taft as President, it is of the utmost importance that this revision shall be accomplished in the shortest time possible, to the end that the importer as well as our domestic manufacturers may know the exact tariff conditions under which their business must be adjusted and conducted in the future. I feel certain, therefore, that for these reasons it is the desire as well as the purpose of both houses of Congress to conclude the consideration and final enactment of what will be known as the Payne tariff bill at the earliest time possible.

Trusting that this rather hasty answer to your inquiries will be satisfactory, and believing that the friends of genuine Republican tariff revision will, when our work is completed, have no real cause for criticism, I remain,

Very truly yours,
J. A. TAWNEY.



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HON. ELIHU ROOT, SECRETARY OF STATE.

ELIHU ROOT: WORLD STATESMAN.

BY WALTER WELLMAN.

THE greatest intellectual force in the public life of America is the mind of Elihu Root. That is true to-day; it has been true most of the time for nine years; it is likely to be true for years to come. His has been the master mind of two administrations,—McKinley's and Roosevelt's. It will be the same in the Administration of Mr. Taft. Mr. Root is leaving the executive branch of the Government, and is to take his seat in the Senate on March 4. Barring the remote possibility of Democratic control of the Assembly at Albany, this means that he is Senator for life. It means also that in the future, as in the past, his talents are to be dedicated to the service of his country.

Some one has said that in Root we have a statesman of the old school. But it is more accurate to say that in him we have a statesman of the new school. He is in a class by himself. In a decade the evolution of the American Government has been from the simple to the complex. Hundreds of new questions and responsibilities have arisen. The old methods of dealing with them have become useless, obsolete. The new era has demanded new methods and new men to operate them. Conspicuous among these new men who have arisen to meet the national exigency, as new men always arise to meet every crisis, have been McKinley, Roosevelt, Hay, Taft, and Root. They have been the really great men of the present epoch. But the greatest of them in intellectual force, in mastery of the principles and details of our Government, is Elihu Root. There is no difference of opinion at the national capital as to that. So President Roosevelt declared a few years ago when he said to me, as I stated at the time in the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*: "Elihu Root is the ablest man I have known in our governmental service. I will go further: He is the greatest man that has appeared in the public life of any country, in any position, on either side of the ocean, in my day and generation." If the lips of William McKinley and John Hay were not mute they would echo this high praise. William Howard Taft does echo it with all possible emphasis.

It is difficult to write of Mr. Root without frequent use of the superlative, of what

would appear fulsome applied to other men. Fulsomeness in praise of him would be grotesque,—like the use of ribbons to adorn the lion's mane,—but the simple truth is that his character and his services are themselves superlative and cannot be characterized in any other way. If the wishes and the mood of Mr. Root himself were to be followed in the writing of this sketch of him it would indeed be simple and modest, a mere inventory of the public business with which he has been associated. It would be a photograph, not a portrait. And perhaps the photograph would be enough, if it were well taken, if the inventory of his achievements and of his influence were made complete.

HIS IMPRESS ON GOVERNMENT.

But it is impossible thus adequately to picture him. To write a list of the things he has done, of the achievements upon which his mind has worked either in dominant or influential fashion, would be to write the history of the American Government for nearly ten years. Not the half, nor the fifth, of his work bears his name. Much of the very best he has done he is not popularly known to have had anything to do with at all. It was once said of him that the people of the United States were the luckiest clients lawyer ever had, because they had for a bagatelle of ten thousand a year enjoyed the services of a million-dollar lawyer. This is true; and in commercial terms it is as good a statement of the fact as we are likely to get. The public naturally thinks of this million-dollar lawyer, this leader of the American bar, as Secretary of War, or Secretary of State, dealing successfully with the questions which arise in those departments. But the truth is much wider.

Nothing of first-class importance has been done by the executive branch of the American Government for nine years unless it has first received, in greater or less degree, the impress of Mr. Root's intellectual power. Every difficult question has been referred to him; he has helped work out every big problem. It did not matter whether these questions and problems arose in his own department or another. It was the same. Just as McKinley always wanted Root at his right

hand, so with Roosevelt. Year after year, month after month, day after day, it has been like this at the White House: "Well, this is a hard matter to decide. Where's Elihu? Send for Root to come over right away." And Root comes over; the master mind sets to work; the elements of the problem are resolved; the solution is found. Nine times out of ten it is the best possible solution. And if when the result of this mental effort becomes known and effective and passes into history other men are given the credit for it, and other reputations are made the stronger for it, so much the better pleased is Mr. Root. He solves problems of government half through sheer love of intellectual conquest, half through a sort of intuitive conscience that tells him it is his duty to do all he can for the Government and the country.

A LAWYER WITHOUT POLITICAL INFLUENCE.

It seems to me there is something almost epic about the rise of this man. It is one of the songs to be found ages hence in our national sagas. Ten years ago his name was not known to 5000 men outside the city of New York. To-day his fame extends throughout the world. There is not a cabinet, nor a chancellerie, nor a council chamber, anywhere, in which he is not often mentioned as the dominant mind in the American Government, as the force all other powers must reckon and deal with in their relations with Washington. This is an epic story because the man has reached this place among the world's few elect through intellectual power and nothing else. To start with he had no political influence. He had never sought it. In fact, he had been at odds with the political leaders. There was astonishment everywhere when McKinley, that most excellent judge of greatness in others even if he was not great himself, made this New York lawyer a member of his cabinet,—this lawyer who had never done anything in politics, and who in a large part of the country was as much unknown as if he were one of the humblest of the hundreds of millions in congested China.

REORGANIZING THE WAR DEPARTMENT.

The story of his achievements from that day to this is the story of the activities and policies of the American Government. It is a story which must be rapidly told, there is so much of it, so fast have the chips fallen after him. He lifted the War Department

out of the slough of clumsy inefficiency and cross purposes into which it had fallen. When he entered the department, just after the Spanish War, disorder reigned; the people had lost confidence in that branch of the Administration. The first thing Mr. Root did was to concentrate his mind upon the task of finding out what the matter was. When Elihu Root concentrates his mind you have a dynamic, almost an invincible, force. If you have seen a compressed-air drill working its way slowly, noiselessly, surely through the adamantine rock, you may realize how the mind of Mr. Root operates upon the problems which confront it. The harder the rock, the greater the working pressure, the sharper the drill. He found out what the matter was. He applied the remedy. He solved the problem of what to do with the bureaucracy, what to do with the fifth wheel to the wagon, the General of the Army, and in time he created the General Staff and placed the American military establishment and its administration upon a basis of the highest efficiency. One is not surprised to learn that just now President Roosevelt is earnestly entreating Mr. Root to perform a like work of reorganization and regeneration for the Navy Department, which needs it quite as badly as did the War Department, and that Mr. Root has consented to give aid and counsel up to the limit of his strength.

CONSTRUCTIVE WORK IN CUBA AND THE PHILIPPINES.

Very soon it became known in Washington that Elihu Root was more than a lawyer, more than an executive,—that he was a statesman with a genius for creating states. It was he who took hold of the difficult problem of creating a nation out of Cuba, establishing a government there and training men to run it and to prepare it for standing alone. He made Cuba, and he wrote what is known in history as "the Platt Amendment," upon which to this day are based the relations of Cuba to the United States.

Cuba is one monument to the constructive genius of Mr. Root. The Philippines are another. In those days the problem of the Philippines alone was heavy enough to crush an ordinary man. Root carried it, along with many other things, almost alone. When the first Philippine Commission was sent out to carry on the work of reconstruction it was necessary for some one to give them instructions, to define their powers in

working out a task huge, complex, delicate. Such instructions were prepared and handed over to the commission. When they were made public, statesmen, students, and jurists the world over saw in them the handiwork of a genius, one of the most remarkable examples of organic law and distribution of powers known to history. This document, this *magna charta* of the Philippine nation in embryo, was signed by President McKinley, but every word of it was written by Elihu Root.

In one sense it was Mr. Root who made Mr. Taft. President McKinley chose Taft to go to the Philippines to carry out the instructions, and the sequel shows that Mr. McKinley must have been guided in this selection by an inspiration almost divine. Taft was young, inexperienced, but whole-souled, a prince of zeal and performance. It was Root who guided him, trained him, helped him, encouraged him, held up his hands, smoothed out the roughest parts of the road, and minimized the opposition of public sentiment at home till Taft, the apostle of American method and the test of American efficiency in a most difficult and altogether new task, could have time to get on his feet.

A GREAT TRIUMVIRATE,—ROOSEVELT, ROOT, TAFT.

We see Mr. Root helping President Roosevelt settle the anthracite coal strike, one of Mr. Roosevelt's greatest unofficial achievements. We see him virtually managing the State Department during the absence of Mr. Hay, and this at a time when the Boxer war in China was hourly producing the most delicate and difficult of diplomatic and military questions.

We see him, a little later,—yielding to the persuasion of his old friend, Mr. Roosevelt,—leaving his law office in New York, sacrificing a princely income, and returning to the Government grind as Secretary of State. For years he has been the guide, the philosopher, the mentor of the energetic young President. Mr. Roosevelt has done almost nothing of importance without first consulting Root; if not Root, then Taft, and preferably both together. It is not unfair to say that these three men have run the Government. Never were three men better adapted to team work found working hand in hand,—Roosevelt the patriotic, progressive, energetic reformer and statesman, the popular hero, the leader of public opinion; Root the analyst, with his long look ahead,

his comprehensive grasp, his almost infinite knowledge of Government affairs; Taft, with his great wholesome common sense, his sympathy with the people, his trained perceptions, his knowledge of actual administration work. Root and Taft have been by Mr. Roosevelt's side in all his progressive measures; they counseled with him almost hourly in his campaign for corporate control and the enactment of the Railway Rate bill. It was long ago written in the book of fate, wherein there are chapters devoted to appreciation, to friendship, and to gratitude, that when he left the Presidential chair Mr. Roosevelt would try to put one or the other of his friends in his place. It did not matter much from his viewpoint, or the public's, which of them was chosen.

WORK IN THE STATE DEPARTMENT.

During the last three and a half years the public has known Mr. Root as Secretary of State. In Washington he has been looked upon as the all-round counselor of the President, incidentally presiding over the State Department. Notwithstanding the scope and multiplicity of his activities, his work as Foreign Minister has been equal to the highest traditions of that office. Perhaps his most brilliant achievement in diplomacy is the pact of peace with Japan,—an "understanding" between the two governments which removes the last remaining source of disagreement between them. It is now generally known that while the famous "exchanges of notes" which the jealously strict constructionists of the Senate try to construe as a treaty is nominally confined to an expression of amity as to the Pacific Ocean and the Chinese Empire, actually the most delicate and dangerous question of all, that of Japanese emigration to the United States, has been settled at the same time. The Japanese Government has virtually prohibited all emigration of coolies or workmen to the United States, thanks to the diplomacy of Mr. Root, and the jingoists who have so industriously made war and rumors of war between the United States and Japan now find their occupation gone. For years it has been axiomatic in Washington that if trouble were ever to come between the United States and Japan it would come over this question of immigration. An anti-Japanese riot in San Francisco, for instance, followed by chauvinistic outbreaks in both countries and the enactment of a Japanese exclusion law by our Congress, would almost surely

lead to war. This danger is now removed once for all. How Mr. Root does all these things is a mystery in Washington, but he does them. He protects and perpetuates the "open-door" principle laid down by Mr. Hay, he preserves the integrity of the Chinese Empire, he leads Japan into the paths of peace.

SETTLING DISPUTES WITH CANADA.

Mr. Root has settled many of the long-standing questions between the United States and Canada, and others are in fair way of adjustment,—the Newfoundland fisheries, the inland fisheries, the Niagara-power dispute, the boundary-marking contention, and many others. In pursuance of his policy of applying the personal equation wherever possible he visited Ottawa as the guest of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, and won the hearts of our Canadian cousins. When Mr. Root leaves the State Department he hopes to have all, or nearly all, of the old disputes between the United States and Canada disposed of or in process of adjustment,—what may be called "a clean desk."

IMPROVING RELATIONS WITH LATIN-AMERICA.

Disconsolate indeed are all the Latin-American diplomats in Washington. They look upon Mr. Root as their great and good friend, and sincere are the tears they shed because he is leaving the State Department. His visit to South and Central America, his assurance to all those countries that the big United States was their friend, seeking nothing in selfishness, but willing to do much in helpfulness, has brought on a new era in the relations between our southern neighbors and ourselves. Secretary Root has done much to make the Hague Conference a reality instead of a beautiful dream, but the best practical application of the Hague principle is found in his creation of a Central American court for preservation of peace between the states of that region. He has settled

more pending questions than any former Secretary of State, he has secured the ratification of more arbitration treaties than any of his predecessors,—something like forty, all told. He has established better relations between the State Department and the Senate than have existed for many years, despite the natural jealousy and antagonism between them, simply because he has gone ten times to the Senate Foreign Relations Committee where his predecessors went once, with exposition and explanation. And not to speak of countless minor achievements, he has reorganized the Diplomatic and Consular Service, taken politics out of it, and put it upon a basis of merit and efficiency.

A LIFE SENATORSHIP?

Mr. Root leaves the State Department, to the great regret of President-elect Taft, largely because he is wearied of the onerous social demands made upon the Secretary of State and his family. As Senator he will be able to keep his residence in New York City and escape the social responsibilities of diplomatic life, which are irksome to him and to Mrs. Root. But he will enter the Senate with greater prestige than any new member of that body has enjoyed in our generation. For him there will be no period of probation, no standing upon the waiting list in deference to musty Senatorial tradition. He will instantly become a personage in that body,—an intellectual force of the highest type and usefulness. And as Senator for life from New York he will be a power for good and sanity and constructiveness in all branches of our Government, a friend of the Taft Administration, and a champion and interpreter of its policies.* It is within reason to say that during the next ten or twelve years, if his life be spared, Elihu Root will be the most potent man in the Government, next to the occupant of the White House, as he has been for ten years past. This is a career scarcely second to the Presidency itself, and in some respects superior to it.



THE NEED OF POSTAL SAVINGS-BANKS.

BY GEORGE V. L. MEYER.

(Postmaster-General of the United States.)

IT is an interesting fact that the two States which have the most conservative banking laws for safeguarding the investment of savings-bank funds have far greater deposits than any other States. One-third of the savings-bank deposits, as recorded by the Comptroller of the Currency, are in New York and one-fifth in Massachusetts, or more than one-half of the entire deposits in the United States, showing conclusively that the people appreciate security as well as opportunity. With savings-banks as numerous as they are in the New England States, where every other inhabitant has a savings account, it is a striking illustration to point to the Southern, Middle, and Western States, where there is about one savings account on an average to every 150 of the population. If the deposits of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, Maryland, Iowa, and California are added to those of New England and New York about 98½ per cent. of the entire deposits will be accounted for, leaving only 1½ per cent. in the remaining thirty-two States.

TO RECEIVE WAGE-EARNERS' DEPOSITS.

The object of postal savings-banks will be to afford through the postoffices, particularly in the remaining thirty-two States, opportunity as well as security for the working-man to deposit his savings.

The large majority of deposits in the national and State banks are active accounts, continually drawn upon, and therefore do not furnish the great resources necessary for new enterprise. The accumulated sums of the wage-earner placed in savings-banks for permanent safety (the greater portion of which is allowed to remain and increase) are of vast importance to the financial strength of a community. If the number of people in other parts of the United States depositing their small savings can be brought up to something like the proportion in New York and New England the outcome will be increased financial strength and vast additional resources in the places where the money is deposited, enabling the establishment of new enterprises and improvements.

Postal savings-banks in foreign countries transfer the savings of a district to the capital or central office, where the money is invested in the public debt, but under the plan proposed for the United States the Post-office Department merely acts as the agent to deposit the money in the national banks in the districts where it is brought to the post offices. Thus the money will be kept in the localities where it belongs, a source of advantage to capital and labor in those communities.

The national banks receiving the deposits are to pay the Government a rate of interest of not less than 2¼ per cent. The Government will pay 2 per cent. to the depositor in the postal savings-bank. The experience of England has shown that one-quarter of 1 per cent. is sufficient to pay all incidental expenses and still leave a margin of profit.

The British postal savings-banks were established in 1861. For the last five years there has been a deficiency due to the reduction in the rate of interest on consols, in which the postal savings are invested, to 2½ per cent., but for the entire period up to 1908 the net gain has been about \$5,500,000.

Mr. George E. Roberts, of Chicago, in his criticism of postal savings-banks, has spoken of them as an "economic crime." Is it fair to charge the Postoffice Department with having committed a crime, if it should be the means of affording in all localities an accessible and at the same time absolutely safe place for the people to put by some of their spare earnings from the profits of their labor? Is it not rather an economic blessing to encourage the laborer in his thrift in order that he may meet the necessities of old age and infirmity?

THE OPPOSITION OF BANK INTERESTS.

A Nebraska banker has criticised the postal-savings proposition and has attempted to prejudice the minds of the bankers generally by stamping it as Socialism. Is it not rather beneficent for the Government to encourage economy and thrift in communities where the proper opportunities for savings are not now given? Is it not advisable for the Govern-

ment to do for its people that which the people cannot individually do for themselves?

Certain savings-bank interests have been influenced unduly in their opposition to postal savings-banks by the fear of losing deposits. I would call to their attention the fact that no accommodations in the way of discounts or payments by check are to be afforded by the postal savings-banks. The people to be reached are in the main those who, because of locality, have not had the opportunity to place their money in safe-keeping, or through prejudice or fear have kept it in hiding. It should be remembered that the deposits that bear interest will be limited to \$500 for each individual and that not more than \$100 can be deposited in any one month. The rate of interest will be 2 per cent. per annum, an evidence of good faith on the part of the Government that it has no desire to enter into competition with existing financial institutions, particularly as the banks in the nearest localities are to be used as depositories and not the United States Treasury.

It is quite probable, as has been stated by some opponents, that in times of panic the deposits in the postal savings-banks would increase through withdrawals from banks, because the people have absolute confidence in the Government; but there must be borne in mind the limited amount each individual could deposit in any one month in a postal-savings depository. During panics when the contraction of the currency is so detrimental to business and financial interests, the postal savings-banks would be the agencies for turning the deposits back into the channels of trade, because the money brought to the post-offices would be redeposited at once in the national banks in the localities where it had been temporarily withdrawn.

The Nebraska banker previously mentioned acknowledges that he does not want postal savings-banks established because in times of panic they would give a place of security for the deposits of the laboring man who cannot afford to buy a safe-deposit box. He feels that if there are no postal savings depositories the greater portion of the deposits will remain in the regular banks. This broadminded banker forgets or ignores the

fact that the damage in this country during financial disturbances has been caused by a contraction of the currency, due to the withdrawals and consequent hiding of funds. There is sufficient currency, provided it can be kept in circulation at such times, and one of the greatest advantages of postal savings-banks would be their ability to prevent contraction of the currency and to turn back into circulation the money which otherwise would go into the pocket, the tin can, or the stocking. Hoarding increases as the real need for money becomes more pressing. When everything is prosperous the timid are sure to come forth with their hoarded funds in order to participate in the good times. But let them be frightened by the signs of danger and hiding begins again.

No opportunity should be lost in encouraging thrift. The nation whose people husband their resources is the strong and progressive nation. The danger to our people is wastefulness and extravagance. Money in the past has been made easily, and money that "comes easy, goes easy." As the country continues to grow every effort that is proper and fitting should be made to increase the stability of the nation and the comforts of our people as a whole. The mere fear of some bankers that their deposits may be temporarily or slightly affected should not bear weight.

FEEDERS TO BANKING INSTITUTIONS.

By those who have studied the question without preconceived ideas of hostility, it is believed that the establishment of postal savings-banks instead of being a detriment to existing financial institutions would in reality prove to be feeders, because the very people who had learned to deposit in postal depositories a portion of their earnings, which they had been in the habit of wasting or keeping in hiding, would realize later on that they could double their income in the regular savings institutions. The Government would put nothing in the way of a move in this direction, having performed its duty when it has taught habits of thrift and economy and led back again into active use money which had temporarily lost its functions.

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THE PETROLEUM RESOURCES OF THE UNITED STATES.

BY DAVID T. DAY.

(In charge of petroleum investigations, United States Geological Survey.)

FROM 250,000 wells, located on 9000 square miles of territory in the United States, 1,806,000,000, or nearly two billions of barrels of petroleum, have been produced in the fifty years of life of that industry.

This short period of fifty years has been characterized by colossal changes in industrial conditions, actually brought about in important cases by the oil trade itself.

Thus, petroleum has contributed half a dozen ingenious methods of boring deep holes for the many industrial purposes involving penetrating deeply into the earth. These methods have stimulated the search for artesian water. They have aided the production of salt and developed the mining of rock salt and its transportation to points of consumption by hydraulic methods. Directly due to the petroleum industry is a wonderfully effective method of producing sulphur by which America now dominates the world's market from a deposit inaccessible to the ordinary methods of mining.

In transportation it has developed the tank car now adopted for the transportation of liquids of all kinds,—even acids,—the basis of many chemical industries. Petroleum developed transportation by pipe lines, one of the most significant trade advances of modern times.

In trade relations petroleum developed one combination after another because the pipe line was the collecting instrument of the manufacturing companies instead of the distributing agent of the independent transportation companies, the common carrier, and it thus came about that the conception of the "trust," as a form of industrial combination, originated in the petroleum trade and was there developed.

In social economy, this fifty years of petroleum has given to the United States a light so bright and so cheap as to tempt the poorest citizens to read at night. This light at night is better and cheaper in the United States than anywhere else on earth, and to this is due the greater average intelligence of the people of this country.

It is the purpose here to consider what store of petroleum is known within the limits of this country, and at what rate it is being exhausted, to what extent the use is wasteful, and to suggest, if practicable, methods by which its use may better serve the interests of present and future generations.

NATURE'S SUPPLY.

As at present actually known, petroleum occurs in the areas shown on the accompanying map of the United States (page 51).

Appalachian field: Oil is unknown, and improbable, east of the Allegheny Mountains. Parallel with their western flank, the Appalachian oil belt extends from western New York to Tennessee. It crosses western Pennsylvania, the birthplace of this enormous industry. There the supply is becoming exhausted. It has declined to one-third its best rate of production. This high oil mark was only seventeen years ago, and we may look for practical exhaustion in less than ten years. The field extends south across West Virginia and for a short distance in eastern Ohio. Farther south there are moderate supplies in Kentucky and Tennessee.

It happens that the oil of this Appalachian field (always known as Pennsylvania oil) is different from that of the rest of the United States,—slightly different, indeed, from any other in the world. It is most easily converted into an oil for lamps and yields the greatest percentage. This lamp oil also happens to be the very finest produced on earth,—in fact, much better than any other lamp oil except that from Ohio and Indiana, and the oil from this latter field costs more to refine.

The oils farther south, in Kentucky and Tennessee, are progressively poorer, but much better than Russian or any other foreign oils with which they come in competition.

Lima-Indiana.—Our second great field in historical development is the Lima-Indiana field in northwestern Ohio and east-

ern Indiana. This oil is more uniform than the Pennsylvania oils. It contains less gasoline and less lamp oils, and the presence of organic sulphur compounds results in an average of $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1 per cent. of sulphur, which can only be removed with ingenious and comparatively costly processes.

Illinois and Mid-Continent.—Just west of the Indiana line in Illinois a strip of territory thirty miles long by an average of six miles wide is yielding a comparatively enormous quantity of oil free from sulphur than the Ohio-Indiana oil, but containing occasionally sufficient asphalt to class it with the oil from the next field to the west, the Mid-Continent field, comprising the pools in Kansas, Oklahoma, northern Louisiana, and northern Texas. This field is yielding a flood of oil, causing an embarrassment to the refineries, and especially to the transportation companies.

Gulf.—To the south is the Gulf field where, in southern Louisiana and in Texas, the past eight years has seen the rise and now the gradual decline of several remarkable oil pools, all characterized by a heavy black asphaltic oil, also handicapped by sulphur. This year a great field of better oil has been found at Caddo in the northwestern corner of Louisiana. It is accompanied by the largest supply of natural gas known in the world. The criminal waste of this gas at present is the sensation of the fuel world.

IN THE FAR WEST.

California.—With the sulphur omitted, oils otherwise similar are found in many areas in California between Los Angeles and San Francisco, where other fuel is so scarce as to make this oil a boon to the railroads and to industrial enterprises.

Minor Developments.—The above are the great fields. West of the Mid-Continent and east of California are the smaller pools,—as thus far developed,—of Colorado and Wyoming, with promises of fields in New Mexico, Utah, Idaho, Montana, Oregon, and Washington, and Alaska.

There are other regions of considerable extent where there is no geological improbability of finding oil. Such geological improbability consists in rocks greatly disturbed and broken up to such a depth as to prevent profitable drilling to undisturbed sedimentary rocks that could furnish good storage for oil.

Measured, the States show the following estimated oil-bearing areas in square miles:

Alaska	500	New York	300
Alabama	50	Ohio :	
California	850	Eastern	115
Colorado	200	Western	535
Idaho	10	Oklahoma	400
Illinois	200	Pennsylvania	2,000
Indiana	1,000	Tennessee	80
Kansas	200	Texas	400
Kentucky	400	Utah	40
Louisiana	60	West Virginia	570
Michigan	80	Wyoming	750
Missouri	30		
New Mexico	80	Total,	8,850

The amount of oil obtainable from these known fields is of course only a matter of conjecture based upon what the fields have yielded already and upon the thickness and relative porosity of the oil-bearing strata. The estimates of different authorities will vary between wide limits, but they will all agree that the known fields are being exhausted at a rate so rapid as to mean cessation of the industry within a few decades unless the expected new fields are found, and this reliance upon unknown sources of supply after a few decades seems to be the characteristic attitude, as if these new fields of great size were a foregone conclusion.

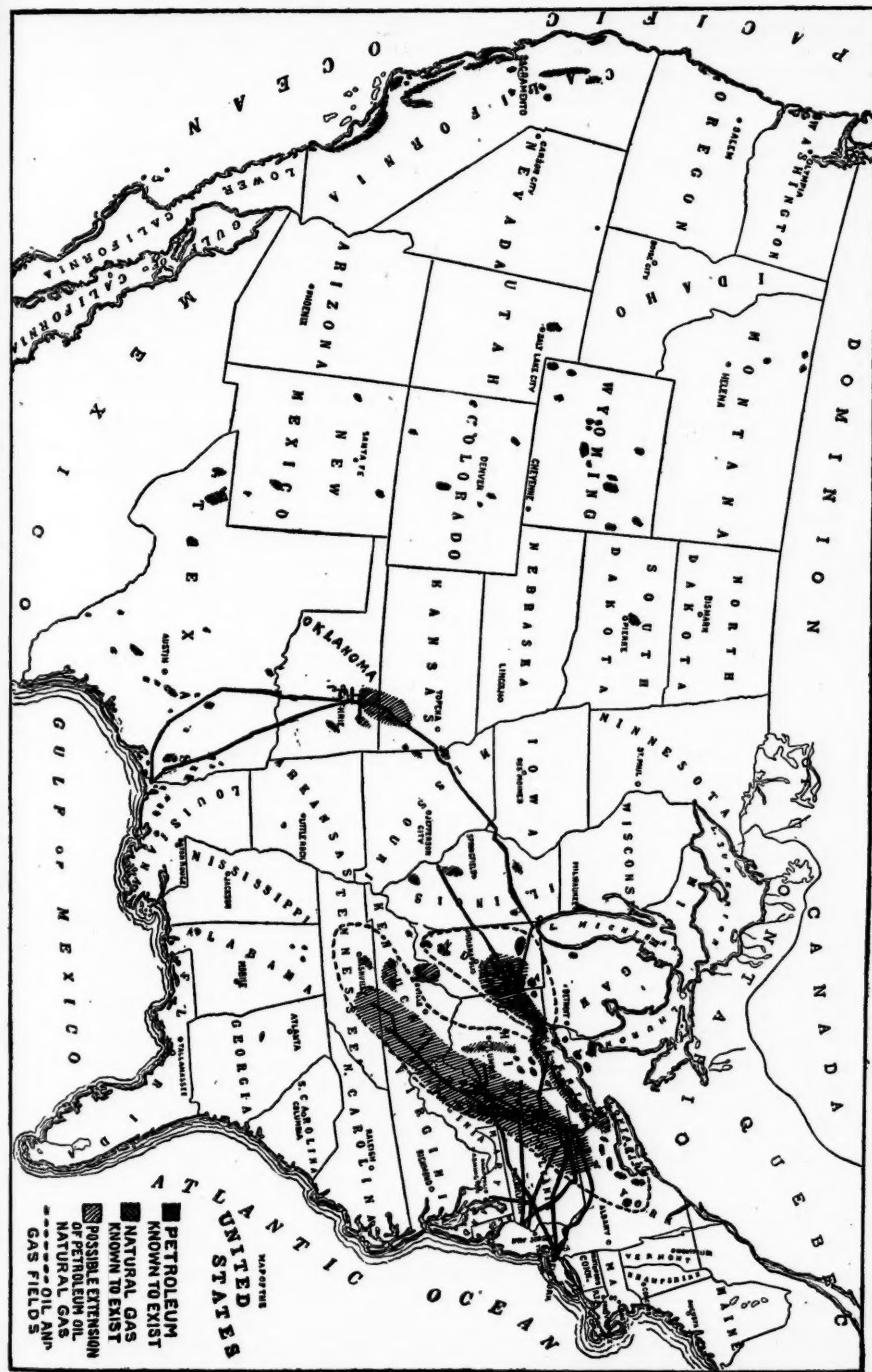
With the certainty of exhaustion of the present fields by the present generation, it is not a matter of vital argument whether such exhaustion comes in ten years or forty. For example, the available petroleum in the actual productive areas of the West Virginia fields has been estimated by Dr. I. C. White, State Geologist, as roughly 5000 barrels per acre. This is far more than has been obtained in the Pennsylvania and New York region or than is likely to be obtained there before the exhaustion of the field. Eight hundred barrels per acre would be nearer the average yield for the total area considered as oil bearing. In other States, small areas, such as Spindletop, Texas, have yielded far more than 5000 barrels per acre. If such a large average is assumed for the known fields of the United States, a total product of twenty-five billion (25,000,000,000) barrels would be expected before the present fields are exhausted. Judging, however, by the rate of decrease in the older fields, a yield of 1000 barrels per acre would seem ample except for the Gulf, Illinois, Mid-Continent, and California fields. This reduces the present total supply to less than half the above, or 12,000,000,000 barrels. Approximately 2,000,000,000 barrels have already been extracted.

Carrying out the increasing rate of production, the industry would be brought to an abrupt end by exhaustion, except in California, in about 1920. The petroleum supply is, however, not capable of abrupt exhaustion, for a petroleum well will not yield its



THE PETROLEUM RESOURCES OF THE UNITED STATES.

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oil faster than its own rate. Included in the calculations to which these figures are due are wells which, starting with 500 barrels as the product of the first day, have "settled down" after a few weeks to five barrels per day, and after fifteen to twenty years yielding about one-quarter of a barrel per day, are still being pumped.

PRODUCTION OF PETROLEUM.

The production of petroleum has been a national industry for just half a century. Previous to this there was sporadic production of petroleum without any definite market. The industry really began when Kier and Ferris, merchants, of Pittsburg, perfected a lamp with a suitable glass chimney by which petroleum was made capable of yielding a steady light far brighter than any other artificial illumination known at the time. It was the demand for petroleum thus caused which put the industry on a permanent basis, and the need which quickly developed for a large supply preceded the drilling of the Drake well at Titusville in 1859, which initiated the flood of petroleum in succeeding years.

In this half century 1,806,608,463 barrels of petroleum, or 240,919,676 tons, or enough to twice fill the Panama Canal when completed, has been produced, worth a little less than \$2,000,000,000. New petroleum fields have been found and developed more rapidly than the rate of production in the older fields has decreased, so that the rate of production has shown a rapid increase from 500,000 barrels in 1860 to 166,000,000 barrels in 1907. We produce almost as much oil as milk.

This rate of production means that, beginning with 1860, in each period

of nine years as much petroleum has been produced as in all of the years preceding. It is a reasonable presumption that in nine years from now our product will be 1,800,000,000 barrels more, or a total product at that time of 3,600,000,000 barrels of oil. Within that time production in the Appalachian field, including the States of New York, Pennsylvania, West Virginia, eastern Ohio, Kentucky, and Tennessee, will have been reduced to a negligible quantity; the fields will practically be exhausted. The Lima-Indiana field,—that is, western Ohio and Indiana,—will likewise have been exhausted, and the greater portion of this supply will have been furnished by Illinois,

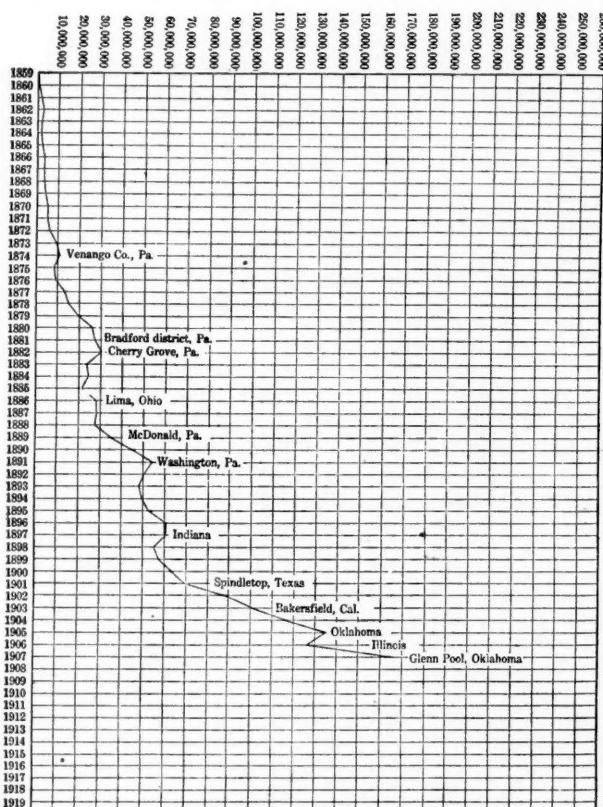


DIAGRAM SHOWING THE RATE OF PRODUCTION OF CRUDE OIL IN THE UNITED STATES.

(This shows very clearly how the production is independent of trade requirements, and that the great increases are incidental to the discovery of new fields. The names of these fields are indicated on the diagram.)

the Mid-Continent field, and others farther west.

The graphic table on the preceding page shows the rate of production indicated above, and also contains notes showing the dates at which prominent discoveries of petroleum have increased the total yield in different parts of the country.

The money expenditure necessary for producing this much petroleum includes a cost of \$550,000,000 for drilling the wells and outfitting them with pumping apparatus. It has cost \$60,000,000 for trunk pipe lines, in addition to the gathering lines from the wells. It has been necessary to expend \$23,000,000 for steel tankage to hold this oil during its temporary storage before it has been refined. Over 20,000 tank cars are in direct use in the petroleum industry. More than 5000 tank cars are used for other commodities. All these are omitted from the 20,000 used for oil. For the oil-tank cars the expenditure has been over \$20,000,000. The 82,109 wells producing our present supply are worth \$150,000,000. An expenditure of \$100,000,000 went for wells that proved failures. It requires 45,000 workmen to operate these wells, and they receive an aggregate of \$40,000,000 in wages.

REQUIREMENTS OF THE PETROLEUM TRADE.

The study of the graphic table presented above is sufficient to demonstrate that the production of petroleum has been influenced not by any regular increasing demand for petroleum on the part of consumers, but by spasmodic accidental discoveries of new oil fields. With the addition of each field the individual producer has realized upon the discovery by extracting the oil at the greatest rate of speed possible, throwing the product upon the market to the greater or less demoralization of the trade, and with absolutely no regard whatever for the industry's requirements. The necessity for this method is due to the fact that a given well draws not only from the land held by one lessee, but frequently from part of the land under the adjoining leases; hence the effort of each lessee to extract the oil before it is obtained by his rival.

Steadying Influence of Exports.—The chief steadyng feature of the trade upon which the purchaser of petroleum has relied has been the exporting of the excess of production to less-favored countries in proportion as the spasmodic increase in supply exceeded the demand at home. Another steadyng fea-

ture has been the use of the crude oil by railroads and other large consumers of power in the place of coal when the surplus supply resulted in a price below what may be considered the normal value, and where material essentially more valuable than coal as a producer of power in most parts of the country was brought into competition with coal by the excess of oil supply.

Increased Refining Capacity.—With each addition to the petroleum production in the United States there has been a rapid development in the capacity of the refining plants of the country in order to utilize the product to greater advantage than by unloading the crude on foreign countries or consuming it as fuel oil. Once developed, this refining capacity demands a continuance of the increased supply, and when the first flood of oil from the new field of production shows a tendency to decline it has been stimulated by an increase in price for the crude oil. This results in increased drilling in the old fields in proportion as the production of oil per well declines.

This growth of the refining capacity means a plant in the United States worth \$12,000,000 for land, \$15,000,000 for buildings, \$75,000,000 for refining apparatus, including tankage for refined products and the distribution of the product by tank cars, tank wagons, pipe lines, and a fleet of over 500 vessels, including barges and scows. It gives employment in the refining business alone to 18,744 people.

Foreign Refined Market.—The desire of foreign nations to purchase our oils must become an increasing factor in the future as the oil supply of Russia and other European countries continues to decline. Thus, a few years ago the oil production of Russia, for one or two years, exceeded that of the United States, while the difference in conditions at the present time is shown by the fact that the excess of the United States production in 1907 over 1906 amounted to a large proportion of the entire production of Russia. There is no statistical evidence that the increasing production of East Indian petroleum will overcome the increasing demand for American oils abroad.

"If."—Perhaps something of the money expenditure which the oil industry gives to the United States each year in the employment of labor and in the manufacture of the necessary supplies, may be grasped by what this would have meant had the conditions existed in Russia for the development of a

similar industry. The oil fields in Russia are necessarily regulated by what they can sell, even for such purposes as burning for fuel. The amount of oil producible in Russia and other European countries is very great, and the proportion furnished depends upon trade supremacy. In the matter of first consideration, geographic location, Russia has the advantage of a short distance by pipe line from the great Baku oil fields to a deep sea harbor at Batoum. The other essential factors are more complicated. The Russian Government permits the sale of concessions for monopolies such as oil production,—concessions which are not known in the United States; but complications arise in the peaceful enjoyment of such concessions due to the changeable attitude of the government toward industrial enterprise. Further, the strong and characteristically American personalities have not been developed in Russia as in the United States.

If the conditions above described had been reversed,—our oil development in this country transferred to Europe,—it would have meant, in addition to the Russian pipe lines, a pipe line system from Roumania and Galicia to Austria, Germany, and France. It would have meant oil produced at the German seaboard at prices, taking into consideration the low cost of chemicals and of labor, such as to prohibit exports from this country, and, in fact, at such low prices that oil would have been imported and would have followed the course of other commodities affected by low wages in European countries, unless this labor and cheap material difference had been offset by a protective tariff on oils. Under this imaginary reversal of conditions,—even the best of them in the Roumanian oil fields,—oil would cost 30 cents a gallon in the petroleum centers, such as Pittsburg, or three times the present price, for oil costs this much in the city of Bucharest, within 100 miles of the oil fields, and the wages paid there by the refiners are not half those paid to American workmen. The very impossibility itself of such a reversal affords a good illustration of the enterprise of the American oil industry and the satisfactory trade conditions characteristic of the United States.

PROBABLE DURATION OF THE SUPPLY OF PETROLEUM.

These considerations show that at the present rate of increase in production, supplies of petroleum in the known deposits

would be less than the requirements of the trade in the next decade, except in California. There are no indications that the rate of consumption will decline until a decrease is necessitated by exhaustion of the supply. Then history shows that the decline will at first be rapid, and finally very slow. Considering the temptation to use petroleum in increasing quantities as a luxury fuel for the generation of power, at present under steam boilers and in the next few years to a far greater extent in internal combustion engines, no reasonable outlook for additional supplies of petroleum can be counted on to delay the exhaustion of the oil fields of the United States beyond the present century, unless the waste of these supplies is stopped by some strong artificial restraint.

NATURE AND EXTENT OF WASTE IN THE EXTRACTION OF PETROLEUM.

Storage.—Waste, as understood in the natural-gas industry, has been markedly absent in the use of our petroleum supplies. In fact, it would be unjust to as remarkable an activity as has ever been known in the industrial development of the United States if attention were not called to the energy shown by the consumers of crude petroleum in utilizing to the most practical advantage and with a minimum amount of waste the floods of oil spasmodically offered for sale by the most reckless exploitations of the oil pools by the oil producers.

Lack of Foresight Abroad.—The record of the United States in this regard stands out pre-eminently above the work in the other oil fields of the world. In Russia, lack of foresight in the opening of unusually strong gushers has not only led to enormous waste in the oil, but floods of oil overflowing from insufficient earthen reservoirs have taken fire, to the destruction of large cities. In fact, nowhere in the world have conditions similar to the emergencies known in the oil fields in the United States been met with such keen foresight and prompt treatment.

Evaporation.—Another kind of waste which has characterized the oil fields of Europe and the East, and which has been most ably avoided in the United States, is the one to which petroleum is more susceptible than any other mineral product, even exceeding water, and that is evaporation. As every one recognizes, the most valuable portions of the various petroleums in the United States are those which volatilize with great ease,—

the gasoline and lighter burning oils. A thin layer of any ordinary light crude petroleum will become heavy and valueless by exposure to the sun of a single day, and this has been a great loss in the open earthen tanks which have been greatly used in Russia. In the United States, on the other hand, only under very exceptional circumstances is an open earthen tank found as an evidence of lack of preparation for a gusher which proved unexpectedly large. Our oil is preserved in steel tanks, often holding as much as 55,000 barrels each. A single tank holds as much as the annual product of Italy. The wonderful rapidity with which these tanks have been constructed to take care of the most reckless production is a tribute not only to the engineering skill of the oil transportation companies, but to the promptness of the iron industry in furnishing steel, to the technical ability of the contractors, and to the inventive genius which has brought about the building of these tanks with such rapidity, and yet with such accuracy as to hold this oil without appreciable leakage or evaporation.

It is not sufficient to simply call attention to the fact that no recommendations on this point are necessary from those not engaged in the industry, but it is necessary to pay tribute to the success of the operators in avoiding this waste.

Essential Uses.—The only kind of waste to which the utmost attention should be called is in the utilization of petroleum. It is only fair to this easily exhausted material that it should be used only for the purposes where it is essential and where there is no other material which can fill its place. Petroleum is economically essential in furnishing light to country homes and to every small establishment not in connection with a gas or electric supply; and, further than this, even when it is sold at the highest prices at which it has been marketed in the United States, petroleum still constitutes the cheapest source of light per candle-power. Coal can never be converted into electric light in competition with lamp oils as to cost. The economic necessity, therefore, of securing the greatest amount of illuminating light from a given crude petroleum is evident.

Absolute Necessity of Oil for Lubrication.—But a still more essential use for petroleum is for lubricating every bearing in every kind of machinery in all our complex civilization. Not a pound of coal can be converted into power by any means without the

necessity of a proportionate amount of lubricating oil. Every ton of coal converted into power requires at least one-half pint of lubricating oil. The conservation, therefore, of a proportionate amount of lubricating oil consistent with all industrial activity must offer a part of the general plan for civilized progress.

Unnecessary Uses.—Instead of being limited to the essential uses above described, petroleum has been and is being used to a large extent for fuel by burning it under steam boilers, especially on railroads, and as a source of power in every form on the Pacific Coast. Whenever a large increase is made in the production of petroleum, with a corresponding decrease in price, the producers are grateful for an outlet for their depreciated oil by selling it for such low-grade uses where it brings not more than one-hundredth part (and has brought as low as one-thousandth part) of the maximum price for petroleum products, and yet much of this crude petroleum at other times is converted into the far more valuable products mentioned above. Further, use of petroleum has been a most helpful implement in the crusade for good roads. The skillful application of petroleum residues to poor road surfaces is so simple, and the results are so instantaneously helpful to the community, that this use can almost be called justifiable, in spite of the fact that coal-tar residues, waste products of the coking and illuminating gas industry, serve the purpose well enough.

Exports.—From the standpoint of the conservation of American interests for America, the most profligate waste of petroleum products has been in their exportation abroad. For this waste there is the plea of humanity that every gallon of illuminating oil which finds its way into an otherwise poorly lighted room is the most efficient missionary for the dissemination of knowledge, and where kerosene oil is cheapest intellectual development is highest as a general rule over the earth. But this export trade has not been based upon a desire for missionary work, but a necessity on account of the frenzied effort to realize on the petroleum stores in the earth. When the export trade can be continued upon a wise regulation of our oil production the missionary value of the kerosene will be increased.

What such exports require in the way of capital it is difficult to grasp in mere figures. The great steel tanks characteristic of Amer-

ican production have been mentioned. Now think of a single tank,—in the form of a steamship holding double as much oil as our largest storage tank. This is only the largest of the fleet already referred to.

METHODS OF PREVENTING OR LESSENING THIS WASTE OF PETROLEUM.

Checking Unnecessary Production.—The manifest means of preventing this waste is by checking the inordinate production so that the use of petroleum will be limited to the purposes for which this fluid is essential. Every acre of oil-bearing public land should be withdrawn from every form of entry and be subjected to a suitable and fair system of lease.

Better Combustion.—In so far as the use of petroleum as a source of power is concerned, a prompt study should be given to the development of internal-combustion engines capable of using crude petroleum or any form of residuum.

HOW CAN SUPPLIES OF PETROLEUM BE EXTENDED?

Prevention of Waste in Extraction and in Use.—In the extraction of petroleum, the legislation tending to the capping of gas wells to preserve the pressure in the oil fields and to prevent the unnecessary encroachment of water is already sufficient in most of the States, but not in all. After the practical exhaustion of the field, this encroachment of water may be looked upon as a means by which, as a rule, the remaining petroleum can be washed into smaller but still profitable pools,—a system which is already intelligently utilized in this country.

Discovery and Development of Substitutes.—Alcohol from grain, potatoes, and from various waste products can be used in place of petroleum as an illuminant and for power in place of gasoline under the stress of necessity. There is no substitute for mineral lubricating oils, animal and vegetable oils being excluded as entirely too expensive. The production of artificial petroleum from various vegetable and animal waste products has received sufficient study to indicate the

possibility of good results from scientific research in this direction.

Necessity of Scientific Research.—There is, however, at present no scientific establishment where such experimentation is receiving any public encouragement. Far more important at the present time than this is the establishment and maintenance of scientific research for the purpose of determining the conditions of accumulation of petroleum in the earth, and, if possible, the primary origin of petroleum itself, for the purpose of enabling the prediction of the occurrence of petroleum deposits in the earth by the study of the geological conditions, and without the necessity for enormous waste of money in haphazard drilling for new fields.

Deterioration and destruction of petroleum are a necessary consequence of its use when consumed either as a fuel or as a lubricant. The methods for reusing lubricating oils have been developed to a high stage of efficiency, but the consumption of lubricating oil still increases proportionately with all industrial activity. The greatest benefit can undoubtedly come from more fundamental studies of the constituents of various crude petroleums for the purpose of obtaining from each oil the greatest proportion of valuable constituents. Greater progress would undoubtedly have been made before this but for the large amount of crude material offered for consumption and the necessity of disposing of it quickly for any use which would yield a market.

Better use of petroleum resources would have been stimulated had fundamental studies as to the nature of various petroleums been carried out by pure scientific research to a sufficient extent to furnish a sounder basis for technical development. For example, we know that Pennsylvania petroleum does not yield the oils from which dyes can be made. But we have lately learned that the lowly Texas oils and the California oils are rich in dye material. Finally, a most fruitful field of research goes beyond the mere extraction of good oils out of bad, and gives promise of transmuting any undesirable residue into the most necessary grades.

STATE CONTROL OF WATER-POWER.

BY CURTIS E. LAKEMAN.

IN these days of widespread interest in the conservation of natural resources and in governmental regulation of public utilities it is perhaps hardly necessary to point out that the water-powers of the country are one of our most valuable material resources, constituting, when developed, a public utility of the highest order. Valuable as this gift of nature is at present, the time is at hand when it will be infinitely more precious. At every turn we are met with a fresh statement of the impending exhaustion of the country's fuel supply and of the early advent of an age of electricity generated from the waterfalls of the wilderness and transmitted great distances to the centers of civilization. Indications of preparation for the coalless age on the part of those best informed and most concerned may be found in the eagerness with which water-power development is being carried forward all over the country and new sites sought out and occupied. The inevitable ascendency of hydro-electric power has already begun. As a public utility of such vital consequence to the welfare of future generations it is indeed time for the present age to take critical account of its extent and the manner of its use, to the end that the widest and wisest distribution of this form of public wealth may be attained. No more than franchises for the development of transportation, lighting, communication, and other public services should the privilege of utilizing water-power be permitted to inhere so exclusively in a few individuals that they are enabled to absorb all the immense profit of distributing such service to the public, and so dictate the terms under which the people shall participate in its benefits. In fact, the supervision of the development and use of this fundamental resource falls peculiarly within the purview of the wider field of governmental activity toward which we are advancing.

NEW YORK'S FORWARD MOVEMENT.

In the enactment last year of a law directing its State Water Supply Commission to undertake a critical survey and estimate of the water-powers of New York, the Empire State, under the leadership of Governor Hughes, has originated a project of public control of water-power which should arouse

wide interest among all who are concerned with the relation of government to natural resources and to public utilities. Inaugurated quite independently of and earlier than the widely heralded "Conservation" movement in the federal Administration, this experiment in State administration is so unique in the annals of the American commonwealths that it deserves a brief review. In his first message to the Legislature, on January 2, 1907, Governor Hughes, after discussing the forest preserves of New York, said: "In this connection it is well to consider the great value of the undeveloped water-powers thus placed under State control. They should be preserved and held for the benefit of all the people and should not be surrendered to private interests. It would be difficult to exaggerate the advantages which may ultimately accrue from these great resources of power if the common right is duly safeguarded." In the next paragraph the Governor discussed the powers and duties of the State Water Supply Commission, which had been created in 1905 as a tribunal to insure the equitable division among the cities and villages of the State of sources of public water supply and the lands necessary for proposed extensions of municipal water-works. To this discussion the Governor added: "It remains to be considered whether it is not advisable to provide a more comprehensive plan, embracing in a clearly defined way the matter of water storage and the use of water courses for purposes of power. The entire question of the relation of the State to its waters demands more careful attention than it has hitherto received in order that there may be an adequate scheme of just regulation for the public benefit."

In answer to these recommendations the Legislature of 1907 enacted the so-called Fuller bill (Chapter 569 of the Laws of 1907), which directs the State Water Supply Commission to "devise plans for the progressive development of the water-powers of the State under State ownership, control, and maintenance for the public use and benefit and for the increase of the public revenue."

RECOGNITION OF PUBLIC INTERESTS.

Space does not permit a discussion at this point of the long chain of events which after

many years led to the passage of this bill. Many attempts have been made in the past to have the State undertake a general policy of river regulation for the prevention of floods and the improvement of navigation. In too many of these instances the real object of the most ardent promoters of such schemes,—namely, the development of latent water-power for their own benefit,—has been but thinly disguised in the alleged purpose of insuring the "public health and safety." Particularly have attempts been frequent to overcome the effect of the strict constitutional provision against the removal or destruction of timber on the State forest preserves, and to secure invaluable hydraulic privileges in these Adirondack forests. On the whole, "water storage" in New York State has not only failed to attain the development to which its importance to the general welfare of the public entitles it, but has even become a term full of sinister meaning, one of those pregnant phrases which involve a controversy, if not connotations of "graft," in their barest mention. It seems clear that this is chiefly because in the past the principle has never been adequately maintained that the people at large should receive advantage or compensation in some form for the enormous benefits which would be conferred on a few private interests. A public not yet educated to the means of making organized use of the State's natural resources for the general good was nevertheless for once almost unanimous in the effective expression of a sentiment that these resources should not be indiscriminately given away. The result has been a system of negative preservation involving the repression of a development which has been and is now demanded by consideration of the welfare of the present and future generations.

WORK OF THE WATER-SUPPLY COMMISSION.

Upon the enactment of the Fuller bill in answer to the Governor's suggestions the State Water Supply Commission immediately undertook the critical survey of the water-powers of the State, which was intrusted to it. The act prescribed with full detail the nature of the information to be secured regarding possible developments, and directed that estimates should be made showing the total of horsepower which could be obtained at each site suggested, the cost of construction, annual maintenance and depreciation of the proposed reservoirs, dams, and other works, together with the probability of selling the power, the probable gross and net revenues

therefrom, and the length of time required to pay off the cost of construction, land, and water rights, and the interest thereon. Each particular development was to be reported on separately, but considered as a part of one whole State project. Finally, a draft of a bill should be prepared providing for carrying into effect the recommendations made, with a fully detailed financial plan for the issue of the bonds of the State to pay the cost of construction and making provision for a sinking fund for the redemption of such bonds.

IMPORTANT CONSTRUCTION PROJECTS.

The commission, in view of the short time that was allowed for the preparation of the progress report, which had to be submitted on February 1, 1908, to the Governor and Legislature, determined to select one or two of the most promising sites for power development and report on them in detail as concrete examples of what might be done, instead of spreading the appropriation over so large a general field that no specific results would follow. Under the direction, therefore, of John R. Freeman, the eminent hydraulic engineer engaged by the commission, studies were made of reservoir sites on the Sacandaga River, at Conklingville, Saratoga County, and on the Genesee River at Portageville. The findings on these two large and important possible developments, as embraced in the report of last winter, may be briefly summarized here.

At Conklingville on the Sacandaga River an earthwork dam with a masonry core can be safely built, which will store 26,000,000,000 cubic feet of water, creating a reservoir nearly as large as Lake George. This reservoir, by regulating the flow of the Sacandaga and the Hudson, would enormously increase the capacity of existing water-power plants on the Hudson, adding during the six driest months of the ordinary year an average aggregate of 80,000 horsepower over and above that now developed at the thirteen present plants between the mouth of the Sacandaga and Troy. This enormous quantity is greater than the aggregate developed water-powers of Holyoke, Lowell, and Lawrence, Mass.

It is proposed to build this reservoir with every care to clear its shores of timber and brush, thus creating an attractive lake and greatly improving the region as a summer resort.

The second stage of development would provide for a power-house with all appur-

tenances near Hadley, three miles below the reservoir, where, with an available head of 200 feet, from 25,000 to 30,000 horsepower could be continuously developed twenty-four hours per day, seven days in the week, which would be equivalent to 60,000 horsepower during ordinary working hours. This power could be transmitted to Albany, Troy, Cohoes, Saratoga, or any of the communities within fifty miles, or it could be used to develop a new industrial community on the spot, greatly adding to the taxable property and wealth of the State. Even with the water thus completely utilized at the Hadley power-house, the minimum discharge of the Sacandaga River would be increased from 130 cubic feet per second, its present minimum rate, to 1700 cubic feet per second. This increase of 1570 cubic feet would still greatly benefit existing plants on the Hudson, adding, for example, 10,000 horsepower at Spier's Falls, one of the thirteen sites in question.

The other large project selected by the commission for detailed study was on the Genesee River, where the incidental object of flood prevention is peculiarly important. Surveys had been made in previous years on this stream, but no construction ever resulted. The commission selected a new site for a dam, above and entirely outside the limits of Letchworth Park, the recent gift of a public-spirited citizen to the State. At this point, near the village of Portageville, it was found that a dam can be constructed to create a reservoir fifteen miles long and one mile wide, impounding 18,000,000,000 cubic feet of water. This reservoir could be operated to generate 30,000 twenty-four-hour seven-day horsepower throughout the year (or 75,000 horsepower during working hours), which could be utilized on the spot, or transmitted to Rochester and neighboring communities. If developed at the reservoir site, the increase of the minimum flow of the Genesee would still add 13,500 twenty-four-hour seven-day power to existing plants at Rochester.

If the development were completed in two stages and the building of the power-house delayed some years, the use of the dam in the meantime for storage only would add 20,000 horsepower of twenty-four-hour seven-day power during the six dry months at Rochester, which figure would equal 50,000 horsepower in working hours.

Careful provision is made in the plans for constructing all works in such manner as to preserve intact the beauty of Letchworth Park and the Portage Falls.

A GENERAL STATE SURVEY.

After receiving the preliminary report embodying the foregoing features the Legislature of 1908 went on record in favor of the continuance of the investigation by granting liberal appropriations for the prosecution of surveys during the present season, which the Governor approved in their entirety. With a greatly enlarged force of engineers, the commission at once undertook a broad survey of the water-powers of the whole State, both developed and undeveloped, at the same time planning the completion of the Sacandaga and Genesee reservoir surveys to the point where actual construction might be recommended to the coming session of the Legislature. In addition it was decided to make detailed examination and surveys for the best possible development of the great power of the Raquette River, one of the largest power streams of the State. A special survey on the Delaware River was also undertaken, and studies for storage and power on several other streams were begun on the basis of existing data. Finally, a reconnaissance of the whole State is being made by experts in power development, and a careful census of existing utilized water-power is in progress.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT'S POSITION.

Such in brief summary is the story of New York's most recent attempt to determine the extent and value of its water-powers and to undertake a general program of their development for the public benefit. It is an experiment which may well be watched with interest, and which if successful may well serve as a model for other States to follow. Let us now examine what has been done by some of the other States and by the federal Government in the general field of public control of water resources. If not precisely similar in method to this original movement in New York State, many of these projects are nevertheless full of interest and instruction to the student of the general subject.

Aside from the widespread movement for the conservation of all natural resources, which resulted from the appointment in March, 1907, of the Inland Waterways Commission and its report of February, 1908, the most recent direct expression of the federal Government's attitude toward the particular question of water-power development is to be found in President Roosevelt's veto in April, 1908, of a bill to extend the time

within which a certain franchise-holding company was to construct a dam across the Rainy River in northern Minnesota. This bill was typical of a great number of similar bills regularly introduced in Congress, as well as characteristic of a tendency in legislation which is probably familiar in all State capitals. In this particular case, which President Roosevelt effectively used to emphasize the Administration's point of view, the company had obtained an original charter over ten years ago, which required them to begin work on the dam in one year and complete it in three years. It is well known that such franchises are sought in too many cases purely for speculative purposes, with the intention of selling the rights of construction as soon as they have become really valuable. The result of this is often the complete obstruction of actual development for a long time.

The President's veto message on this particular bill is a most important document in outlining what should be the attitude of Government toward the granting of franchises for water-power development. Instead of the present haphazard policy of granting valuable public franchises of this sort, the veto message urges the inauguration of a definite program with the following essential features: (1) A limitation on the grant in the nature of an option or opportunity for development of plans within a specified reasonable time; (2) an express provision making it the duty of a designated official to cancel the grant if the work is not begun or carried out in accordance with its provisions; (3) the assurance that the plans provide for the maximum development of navigation and power, or at least that they will not ultimately interfere with such maximum development; (4) a license fee, small at the outset, but capable of adjustment in the future, so as to secure a control of the development in the interest of the public; (5) provision for the termination of the franchise at a definite time, leaving future generations free to reconsider and renew it in accordance with conditions which may then prevail.

In the attempt to work out a wise and far-sighted policy of this sort in the granting by the federal Government of water-power franchises, and in the whole movement toward the wiser conservation of the material foundations of our prosperity, President Roosevelt has had widespread support, and we may be assured that the attitude toward these questions so auspiciously inaugurated

by his Administration will be continued under his successor.

WISCONSIN'S UNIQUE PLAN.

Up to the present time not as much as could be wished for has been accomplished by the several States of the Union toward the conservation and development of their water resources under a general and comprehensive policy. A few instances of progress in this direction may, however, be noted.

The State of Wisconsin has recently worked out a plan for encouraging private enterprise in the development of water-power and the improvement of navigation under public supervision, which is, as far as the writer is informed, quite unique in this field and possesses features of general interest. By the passage of Chapter 335 of the Laws of 1907, a private company, the Wisconsin Valley Improvement Company, was incorporated and authorized "to construct, acquire, and maintain a system of water reservoirs" on the Wisconsin River and its tributaries. All the State's riparian and flowage rights in the stream in question are assigned to the company and a wide authority of eminent domain is delegated. The company is to charge and collect reasonable tolls on all logs and timber floated in the stream and from the owners of each and every water-power located on the river which is benefited. The act is declared to be for public purposes and shall be construed favorably to the accomplishment of such purposes. The interesting manner in which the State retains specific control over the company is by a provision similar to that which has been successfully worked out in Massachusetts in the adoption of the sliding scale of charges for gas in Boston. The company is directed to make annual reports to the Wisconsin Railroad Commission showing its expenditures, stock issues, capital, and schedules of its charges. If the profits of the company increase beyond a certain point, it is compelled, under the provisions of the act of incorporation, to reduce its toll charges in proportion. Through the means of these annual reports to the Railroad Commission the State is enabled to ascertain periodically the exact financial position of the company, and thus to enforce, if necessary, the provisions of the charter relating to charges. The State also retains the right to take over the company when permitted to do so by constitutional amendment. The development of the Wisconsin River by private capital under this method of State control will be watched with interest.

POWER DEVELOPMENT FROM THE CHICAGO DRAINAGE CANAL.

An instance of the complete production and distribution of water-power under public ownership may be found in the plans of the Sanitary District of Chicago, the civil division of the State of Illinois incorporated to construct the sanitary and ship canal from the Chicago River to the Desplaines River. This canal was begun in 1892 and completed in 1900 by the people of Chicago at a cost of \$53,000,000, and was intended to protect the lake sources of Chicago's water supply by providing a channel for the removal and dilution of the city's sewage. It is intended that this channel shall eventually form the first link of the projected Lakes-to-Gulf deep waterway. At points along the course of the canal the immense volume of water carried from the lake becomes of great value for power purposes. At Lockport, Ill., a power installation, already partly completed, will eventually furnish 40,000 horsepower. A proposed extension to the canal would add some 22,500 horsepower to that capable of development at Lockport and Joliet. "It is the defined purpose of the Sanitary District," says the power prospectus, "to supply the municipalities within its limits such power as may now or later be required for their own use." The surplus power will then be thrown open to the general market at a general cost lower than that of steam-power. Sites for manufacturing will be leased by the district, and an industrial development similar to that at Niagara Falls is hoped for.

CHEAP WATER-POWER FOR ONTARIO.

Probably the most radical advance yet made in America toward the state ownership and development of water-power has been the movement in the Province of Ontario which resulted in the creation of two successive hydro-electric commissions with extensive powers. The movement grew out of a widespread demand for cheap power in this Province, which, owing to its distance from the coal-fields of Pennsylvania, experienced a general realization of the heavy cost of generating power from coal. Accordingly the first hydro-electric commission was constituted in 1905 to make an investigation of both the developed and undeveloped water-powers of Ontario. The result of the report of this commission was the creation of a second commission, which is still in existence. This body is given extreme-

ly wide authority, upon the application of any municipality in the province for a supply of electric power, to take the necessary steps to furnish this power, either building new plants and transmission lines, or entering into agreements with existing companies to furnish the required quota of energy, or if no satisfactory agreement can be reached to expropriate the plant and furnish the power to the municipality on behalf of the government, at rates based on actual cost of production.

WHY STATE SUPERVISION?

We have indicated in a general way the importance of water-power to future generations as a public utility of the first order, and the consequent necessity of safeguarding in one way or another the public right in this resource as against the excessive profit of a few. The instances of public control which have been reviewed are of general interest in so far as they represent progress in the direction of securing such safeguards. They illustrate, moreover, a few of the more specific reasons why the State or federal Government is better qualified than any lesser authority, public or private, to undertake comprehensive projects of river conservation by means of storage for flood prevention, power development, and the improvement of navigation. These reasons may now be briefly summarized:

The first and greatest reason for State action is that only in this manner can a full, comprehensive, co-ordinated, and therefore truly economic development of our hydraulic resources be secured. No one company or individual would be able, as a rule, to undertake the complete development of any given stream throughout the region of its effective flow. The undertaking would be too vast to be feasible, even if a market for all the power could be assured. It would involve a wide exercise of the power of eminent domain, which would have to be delegated to the company for the purpose. Furthermore, co-operation among mill owners and other interests for such a purpose is peculiarly difficult to arrange. The State, on the other hand, retaining the control of the whole stream, could develop such portions of its power as might be salable from time to time, yet always with the ultimate plan for a complete development in mind.

Another reason for State supervision, perhaps more local to New York, though potentially of wide application, is directly concerned with one of the most emphatic pro-

tests that has been made in this State against the building of power reservoirs,—namely, what may be called the esthetic objection. It is only too true that much bad reservoir practice has furnished good cause for the widespread notion that power reservoirs destroy the beauties of the natural river and result in scenes of destruction and desolation. Experience and the best engineering authority have conclusively shown, however, that proper reservoir building is only a matter of adequate expenditures under proper plans and careful supervision. It is not consistent with experience to hope that private companies, bent on immediate gain, will ever go to the extra, and to their minds unessential, expense of properly clearing reservoir beds of standing trees and underbrush before turning in the water. Only when the State does this work as a part of its general program, and with constant realization that this is a highly important aspect of any construction worthy of the State, can attractive rather than repulsive reservoirs be generally secured.

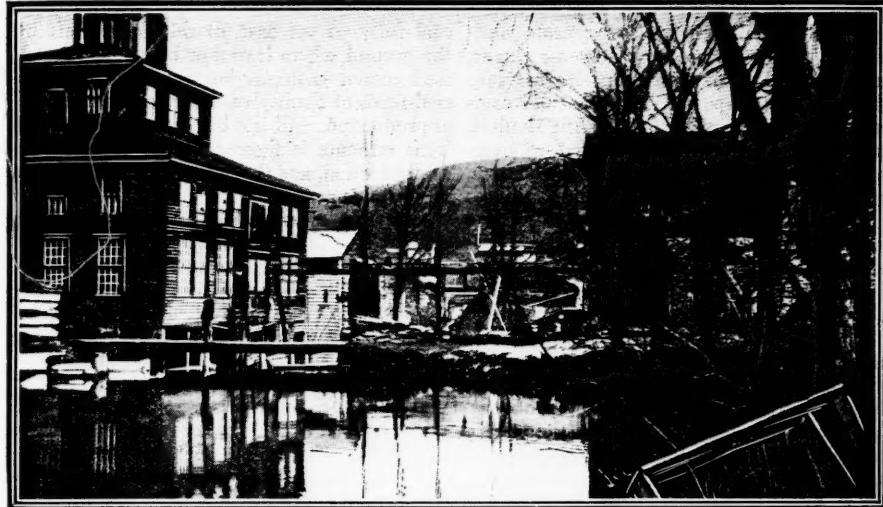
The State's great financial strength provides a third reason why the public authority may advantageously construct the controlling works for power development. The State can borrow the money needed for such expensive structures as storage reservoirs at a lower rate of interest than any corporation. A part of this saving may well be spent by the State in securing the adequate treatment and proper supervision necessary to insure attractive and healthful artificial lakes, which may be depended on to increase the property value of the whole surrounding region as a health and pleasure resort. The State can afford to take the long view and wait twenty or thirty or fifty years for the return on its money, whereas such delay in profitable result is prohibitive to the plans of the prospective manufacturers.

Aside from the foregoing considerations, one of the most cogent reasons for the adoption of public policies of water conservation by the several States is to be found in the many indirect benefits which the public receive. Assuming that power development is the prime object of water storage, widespread incidental benefit must necessarily result in mitigation of flood damages, in the deepening of navigable river channels, in the

dilution of sewage, and in the driving back of brackish tidal water from river sources of public water supply, all of which benefits will follow the regulation of fresh-water flow by means of forests and artificial reservoirs.

In all these ways, then, the State would profit by a general program of river conservation, and for the reason given it would seem that the State and federal governments, each in its proper sphere, is the proper authority to originate and carry out such projects. If not actually owned by the State, water-storage and power developments must at least be controlled by the public. In this direction New York State has taken an advanced position. Since the passage of the Fuller bill and Governor Hughes' prompt and public-spirited action in refusing to approve in its original form a bill to give a St. Lawrence River power company a perpetual franchise without compensation to the State, the Empire State may be regarded as committed to some form of public control of water-power development. Just what the details of that policy will be is a point still to be decided on the basis of the information obtained by the critical survey now being made. There are several alternatives. The State may build its reservoirs, power plants, and transmission lines, and develop and market its own power, either furnishing it to municipalities for strictly public uses or encouraging the development of new industrial centers, to the consequent increase of taxable property.

Again, it might develop the power for delivery to a distributing and transmission company, or, as now seems more likely, it may be thought wisest that the State should not thus enter the field of complex and technical private industry, but should rather confine itself to the storage of water and its sale to companies or individuals in condition for reliable use in the production of power in their private plants, retaining also such general supervision of all its waters as will insure the guarding of the public right in them as the sources of public supply and the means of public profit. This principle once established, the present administrative and legislative authorities of the State may pass their work on to the future with the consciousness of high duty well performed, and other States may make profitable use of the example thus provided.



ONE OF MANY ABANDONED MILL-DAMS THAT MIGHT BE UTILIZED IN PRODUCING ELECTRIC CURRENT.

POWER FROM THE FARM BROOK.

BY DONALD CAMERON SHAFER.

"**W**ASTE is being eliminated from the States has set an excellent example in this respect which foreign countries are not slow it must soon perish from the face of the earth," said a distinguished German commissioner after an inspection of the great industrial cities of this country. "No glaring red light illuminates the sky over the made-to-order city of Gary, Ind., such as you see in Cleveland, Pittsburg, Birmingham, and other steel cities. At Gary the hot gases from the blast furnaces are saved to run great gas engines which generate electric power to drive the steel mills, to run the street-railway system, and to light the buildings and streets. The piles of anthracite coal dust, formerly burned at the mouths of the mines in Pennsylvania and West Virginia, are now washed and the culm saved to fire furnace boilers and railway locomotives. Every bit of scrap metal, wood, and other material about the great industrial plants at Schenectady, N. Y.; Lynn and Pittsfield, Mass.; Pittsburg, Pa.; Milwaukee, Wis.; Fort Wayne, Ind., and Dayton, Ohio, is saved and turned into dollars. The greatest economy in this world is the development of the great waterfalls of America and the turning of their wasted energies into electricity for heat and light and power. The United

spect which foreign countries are not slow to follow."

"It is true that waste is no longer tolerated in the industrial world," answered the president of one of the great manufacturing companies, "and that the greatest rewards go to the men who solve the problems which increase the efficiency of our great industries by saving the waste. But the problem to conserve our great natural resources is complex and difficult. Within the next forty years the sawmills of the United States will be all but silent, and thousands of coal-cars will be standing idle and empty on the sidings, unless something is done to stop the criminal waste of the trees, which grow so slowly, and of coal, which will never grow again."

"You admire the big motors which drag the trains of electric cars," said Dr. Charles Proteus Steinmetz, the electrical engineer, "but, do you know, that for every horsepower that is used by one of these motors a little more than a horsepower must be generated somewhere along the line? In most cases this electrical power is generated by a steam engine. The steam engine demands great quantities of coal. When our coal is

gone, what shall we do to generate electricity? True, we use now, to some extent, the natural force of water, but we use very little of the water-power we have at our command. With the spring freshets the rivulets, creeks, lakes, and rivers are filled to overflowing, and all that power goes to waste, destroying farm land and flooding villages and cities. In time we shall have to harness every stream that has the least motion. We shall guard with large storage dams every bit of energy the water has, although a great deal of natural beauty must perish in the process.

"While we are economizing in most things and neglecting the water-power, we are shamefully wasting our great natural supply of coal and other carbon fuel," continued Dr. Steinmetz, "and as we near the end of coal, oil, and gas, the only remaining source that will keep us Northerners from freezing is the water supply. The present development of the great rivers and waterfalls of this country is only the beginning. In the near future the power of the rivulets and streams will have to be collected and used by the farmers and country villagers, where coal is costly and hard to obtain."

WHY WE MUST HARNESS THE RIVULETS AND STREAMS.

That this warning is not untimely is evidenced by the figures taken from the last census reports: In 1902, 297,157,554 long tons of coal were mined in this country, of which 36,940,710 tons were anthracite. It is estimated that close to half a billion tons were mined and consumed in the past year. Manufacturing alone consumed 173,249,666 tons in 1905, to say nothing about 150,000,000 tons used by the steam locomotives, and the millions consumed by the steamships, and to heat our homes and office-buildings.

According to the Government's geological experts, we waste 200,000,000 tons of coal every year in this country, owing to improper mining methods. Through working the lower beds of the coal first, the mining of the adjacent higher beds becomes impracticable. Again, much coal is left as pillars to support the roof of the mine. We are using what is best and cheapest, and this neglect and wastefulness will cost succeeding generations more for their coal. We leave underground almost one-half of our supply; in Vancouver, British Columbia, 98 per cent. is mined.

It is estimated that with the present extravagant and careless methods of mining

coal fully 50 per cent. of this fuel is left in the ground where it cannot be recovered. A well-known geologist has estimated that the coal-fields of Pennsylvania, at the present rate of production, will last but ninety-three years. This estimate is figured at the present rate of production, and the demand grows by leaps and bounds every year.

A stream of mineral oil running over the ground is quickly noticed and the waste immediately stopped. A coal mine afire is apparent to all, and everything is done to extinguish it. But because escaping natural gas is invisible people do not recognize and appreciate its intrinsic value. Water-power may be neglected, but it cannot be totally wasted and exhausted, for water-power will always be here so long as gravitation exists and the sun shines. It does not hurt water-power to be utilized; after the water leaves the turbines there is just as much of it as there was before. In developing water-power we are utilizing the force of gravity,—the greatest natural force,—which is pulling the water toward the center of the earth. Water-power is but the energy of the falling weight.

America is still too large, too rich in natural resources, and too young to be compelled to harness every small stream at once; but experiments have already been crystallized into practical applications. The farmers are busy to-day harnessing their small water-powers, and, as the necessity for electrical power increases, the small rivers, streams, and brooks will be made to turn countless electrical generators to light the buildings, furnish an abundance of heat, and drive the wheels of every industry.

The development of the water-power of small streams is just beginning, but the movement is general all through this and foreign countries. Nearly 75 per cent. of the 5,737,372 farms in the United States boast of a small creek or two rioting boisterously through the bushy glens and rocky ravines or singing and playing through the daisy-splashed meadows. Nearly every one of these streams is available for horsepower.

As the land loses its fertility and the population of the country increases it is necessary to introduce more careful methods of farming. In a number of countries in Europe land is so valuable and carefully cultivated that an acre is made to support a whole family. Land is so precious in Japan that it would be looked upon as criminal waste to use so much of it for fence stakes as we do

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in this country. The exhausting of the soil in New England is already a serious proposition. Hundreds of wornout farms, once worth millions of dollars, are abandoned in New York State, though they formerly produced the finest wheat in the country. The cheapest and best way to revive this unproductive soil is to feed it with nitrogenous fertilizer obtained from the free air by an electrical process, already employed in Sweden and other European countries, where cheap electricity from water-power is available. When all the little streams are generating cheap electricity the farmer will have an abundance of the best fertilizer for the asking, and there need be no more exhausted land.

The farms are crying for more help, but greater still is the call from the rural districts for more power!

With power,—cheap, reliable power,—the farmer can run more labor-saving machinery and do with fewer hired hands. He can produce and harvest his crops with less cost and greater profits.

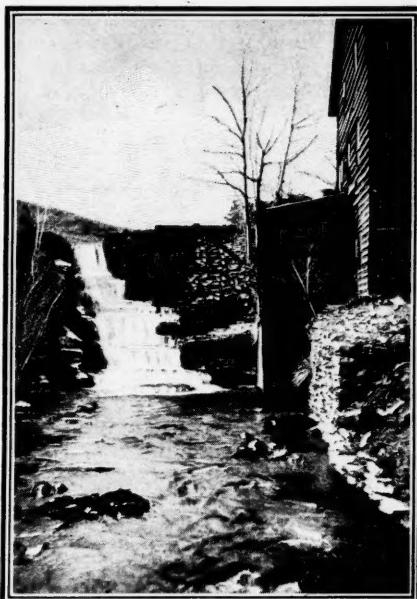
If farm products are to be kept in reach of the city workingman the farmer must have more power and a cheap fertilizer.

It was the noisy cataract that answered when the world lifted up its voice for more mechanical energy to drive the industrial wheels of the cities. Now it is the whispering meadow brook which volunteers, in its silvery, murmuring tones, to do the hard work of the country districts, to enrich the soil, and to take the place of coal. The streams which for ages sang in musical accompaniment to the Muses of poesy now dance in mechanical rhythm to the enchanted pipe of the fair goddess "Electra." To the ears of the electrical engineer Tennyson's brook now sings:

*"Engines may come and engines may go,
but I give power forever."*

And water-power is the cheapest as well as the most permanent source of energy in the world.

Just as coal energy is the heat of the sun stored for our use, even so is water-power heat energy stored in the streams, awaiting a harness and bridle to do the work of man. Every drop of water sucked up by the heat of the sun from the Seven Seas and carried by the wind-borne clouds, to be deposited in the distant mountains, is just so much stored energy to be used in racing back to the great oceans. Few and scattered are the great waterfalls giving millions of horsepower, but



PICTURESQUE SOURCE OF ELECTRIC POWER.

the land is spider-webbed with countless streams, big and little, which represent enough energy to do all the farm and industrial work in this country many times over, and leave enough energy to light every city and town and to furnish heat and light for every building. Enough water rolls past St. Louis to turn all the wheels of the United States, and it is said, upon excellent engineering authority, that enough water-power is still undeveloped in the State of Massachusetts,—where water-power is already extensively utilized,—to equal the flow of Niagara. The extent of the water-power going to waste in this country is beyond the average human comprehension and intelligence.

It is good that this is so, for we shall need it shortly!

Already the finger of progress points knowingly toward the rivers and streams for future power, and the throbbing, sibilant voice of the steam engine echoes the warning of the engineer that the coal supply is rapidly being exhausted. Then the people will have to flock to the torrid zone to keep from freezing in the winter, and the wheels of industry will stop unless all the water-power is developed and the energy turned into heat and power.

"The problems of progressive farming

have been solved by the meadow brook," said the New York State agriculturist as he lounged deep in the shade of the farmhouse porch and listened to the steady hum of the harvesting machinery. "The discouraging, never-ending hard work, which in the past has done more than any one thing to drive the boys from the farm, is no longer a grim necessity now that the little pasture streams can be turned into electrical energy to do the work of threshing, churning, separating, unloading and pressing the hay, even to milking of the cows and the turning of the hateful grindstone.

"Electricity has too long been a faithful servant whose labor could only be enjoyed by the residents of the cities and large villages, while the farmer, far removed from the central stations and electric transmission lines, had to do without. Happily, this is no longer true, and the gladsome day has arrived when we countrymen can partake of the manifold comforts of an electrically lighted home, or watch the mysterious current do the hard work, even as our city relatives, and at considerable less cost."

It speaks well for American invention and industry that the dairyman of New England and the agriculturist of the Middle West can harness the trout streams flowing through their meadows and pastures just as economically as the multi-millionaires can bridle the mighty torrents of Niagara, the outlet of Victoria-Nyanza, or the falls of Titicaca. The development of large water-powers is the greatest economy the industrial world has ever known, and the saving to the countryman in developed power from the smaller streams is just as great in proportion.

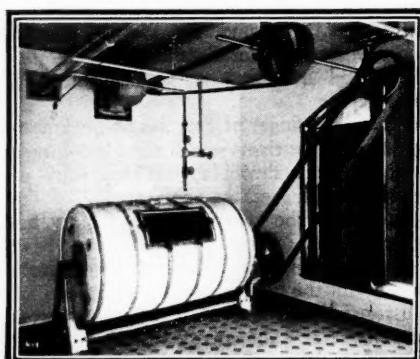
There are many reasons, which magnify

in importance every year, why the country resident is interested in electric power. Farm help is so very scarce, and the cost of such labor is so exorbitant, that the future of agriculture would be dark, indeed, but for the foreign emigrant and power-driven machinery. The present high price of farm produce is largely due to the fact that the farmers cannot keep pace with the demand, with the soil getting poorer and poorer each season, and the cost of farm labor increasing in alarming proportion every year. Prices for farm products are steadily advancing, notwithstanding that farming, as an industry, has made gigantic strides in the past few years, keeping equal pace with the improvements inaugurated in other occupations. Practical machines have been invented for almost every class of work about the farm, but nearly all this modern machinery requires some form of mechanical energy.

UTILIZING OLD MILL-DAMS.

A century ago the Eastern States were almost entirely covered with virgin forest. Steam power was almost unknown, and to satisfy the demands for lumber, flour, and cloth every small creek which offered sufficient natural advantages was harnessed and put to work. The sawmills clattered night and day, but made little headway against the great forests stretching far to the west. Yesterday the army of invading settlers was clearing the land as fast as the axe could lay low the giant trees and fire could burn them where they fell. To-day the forests have gone forever, and where once the great trees shaded the leaf-strewn earth now spread the broad fields of grain and meadow and orchards heavy with growing fruit. Their cruel work done, the axe and the old-fashioned sawmill are idle to-day because there are no more trees to fall. The flour and grist mills have followed the wheat to the great West. The tiny woolen-mills, where the home-grown wool was carded for the farmers' wives and daughters to spin and weave into cloth, have been superseded by the electric-driven power looms located in the cities. But the decaying buildings and the old ponds remain; the former to tell over and again the story of America's wonderful progress and the latter to afford excellent fishing and swimming places for the neighborhood youngsters.

Gone are the old "up-an-down" saws, the crude wool-carding machines, and the heavy millstones,—but the water-power is still



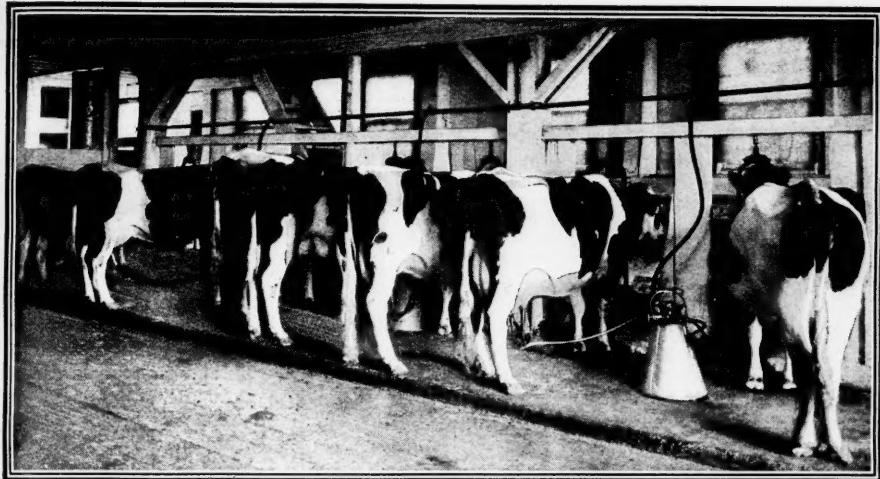
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MILKING COWS BY ELECTRICITY.

there. With the disappearance of the forests the water-power is considerable less, but later-day invention has produced a turbine water-wheel which operates at a saving of 60 per cent. over the wooden mill wheels. Even though the dams be isolated, the power can now be changed to electrical energy and transmitted any distance to the farms or villages.

All through the States of New York, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, Maine, Vermont, and in numerous other States in the Union these old mill-ponds are being repaired and used to generate electrical power. A large percentage of the small villages now supplied with electricity have repaired old dams and equipped the power-house with modern machinery at a trifling cost.

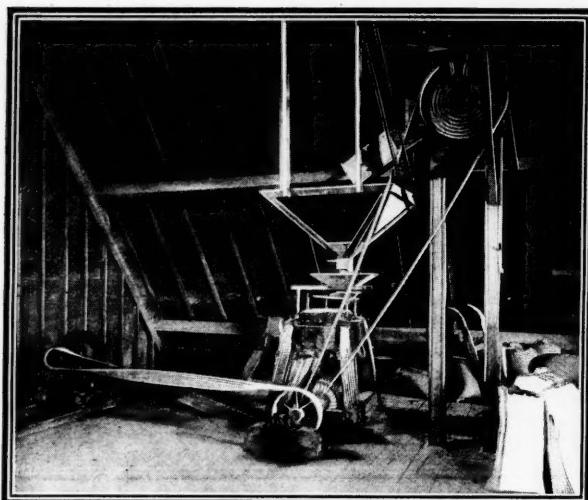
THE COUNTRYMAN'S SILENT PARTNER.

Through an old pasture on the farm of Jared Van Wagenen, Jr., at Lawyersville, N. Y., runs a very little brook, its green banks fringed with cowslips and buttercups. A little more than half a mile from the house there is an old mill-dam and a decrepit sawmill, built a century ago. The sawmill is slowly following the forests it helped to deplete so long ago, but the banks of earth about the ancient dam are strengthened every year by the fibrous roots of the giant willows.

"I never heard the splash of the water over the broken apron without regretting that so much energy did nothing but make a little

noise," said Mr. Van Wagenen. "Five years ago I began to seriously figure out the problem of getting some of this energy to the house, where I could use it. On account of the distance electricity was the only form of energy which could be transmitted. Had I wanted to construct a municipal plant costing \$100,000 there would have been whole libraries of advice. But a plant of half a dozen horsepower, that must run for a week at a time without any one going near it, and be controlled from a distance, offered problems not solved in books."

This little farm plant, which works so successfully, consists of a nine-inch upright turbine of five horsepower, running with a fifteen-foot head. The dynamo, which is a three-kilowatt, or four-horsepower, machine, will take care of sixty ordinary lights; will drive a milk separator, milk the cows, turn a grindstone, fanning mill, or feed grinder; cut the ensilage, or drive a dozen other small machines. Considering the enormous variety of work which this diminutive plant is capable of doing, without any special attention, and the amount it saves, it is the perfection of industrial economy. It is capable of doing the work of three hired men, and will furnish all the comforts of electric heat and light besides at a very insignificant cost for maintenance. Mr. Van Wagenen gave the installation cost something like this: One three-kilowatt dynamo, \$130; one small turbine water-wheel, \$60; one water-wheel governor, \$75; line wire, running about 900 pounds to



A MOTOR-DRIVEN GRIST MILL IN A BARN.
(Saving the expense of buying feed.)

the half mile, \$65; other incidentals bring the cost up to about \$350. The total installation costs less than a hired man for a year.

Ten miles east of the Van Wagenen farm, near Howe's Cave, is located the home of Frank Casper. Fifteen years ago Mr. Casper purchased for \$50 a small dynamo and a quantity of electrical fixtures at a sale in Binghamton. He installed the dynamo in his sawmill and wired his own house for electricity. Every night since then this little generator has been producing a continuous current of electricity, with no further attention than an occasional oiling, to light the large country home and all the outbuildings. Through the kindness of Mr. Casper a nearby church is also illuminated, and even the streets of the tiny settlement are nightly ablaze with electric lights. The actual cost of this current is practically nothing. The dynamo and turbine paid for themselves more than a dozen years ago. Besides for lighting purposes the current is used to drive small motors and to heat the vulcanizer in the garage as well as to charge the storage battery in the automobile.

Twelve miles to the west of the Van Wagenen farm the hamlet of East Worcester, with less than 200 inhabitants, boasts all the comforts and conveniences of electricity. An ancient sawmill storage-pond has been reconstructed. The old mill was changed into a power-house, and to-day the village

chines. The stables are electric lighted, and small motors do the farm work.

In the great West, where water is very scarce, a number of farmers are utilizing their windmills to generate current for light and power. A storage battery is provided to store away enough electricity to last a day or two in case the wind fails. At Noblesville, Ind., a man has constructed a plant which is a combination of both wind and water power. The fourteen-foot windmill drives a plunger pump which delivers water to a hydraulic accumulator. This water, under constant pressure of seventy-five pounds, is used to drive a one-half-horsepower turbine water-wheel direct connected to a one-quarter-horsepower dynamo. This plant develops only enough current for household purposes. In the California plains, far from other power source, even the sun is harnessed to develop electrical power for farm work. Huge reflectors follow the course of the sun and focus the rays on a boiler. The steam is conveyed to a small engine which drives the generator.

The great plantations of South America, the tiny farms of the Swiss Valley, the tea and cotton fields in India, the ranches of the African veldt, as well as the farms in the United States, are beginning to use electricity for agricultural purposes.

The number of central stations in this country supplying villages and cities with electric light is 5577. Of this number, 4357

has so much cheap electricity that the current is transmitted to Worcester, five miles away, and to Richmondville, seven miles away, and sold to light the streets and homes of the sister villages.

In a number of communities where there is abundant water-power and the farms are close together the farmers have joined issues and erected a mutual plant, dividing the cost of building and maintenance in proportion to the amount of electricity used. The surplus is easily transmitted and sold to more distant neighbors.

At Little Falls, N. Y., the milking at several dairies is done by electric power operating milking ma-

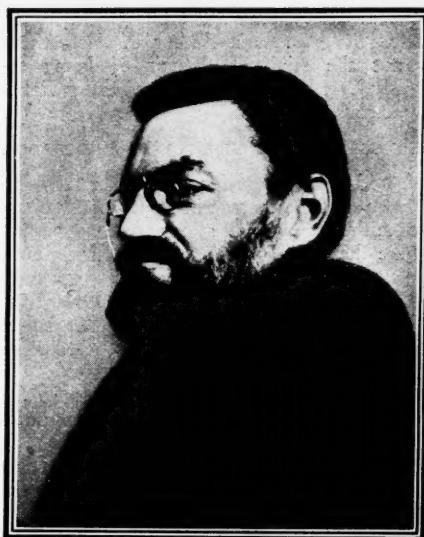
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exist in towns of less than 5000 inhabitants; 1466 are located in villages of less than 1000 inhabitants. The total output of these stations is 5,000,000,000 kilowatts a year. Besides these figures 193 towns and villages are supplied with electricity from neighboring plants.

THE PRODIGAL RETURNS WITH NEW IDEAS.

In the past fifty years a steady stream of country people has poured into the cities; now the pendulum is swinging back and the city people are flocking to the country. The city men and women bring with them their love for city comforts and, fortunately for the development of water-power, have not forgotten all their old-time hatred of farm work. Being infused with these new and advanced ideas, the country districts are making progress as never before. Telephone lines are stretching to nearly every farm all over the country. The pasture streams are being harnessed to do the farm work, blooded stock prevails, and crops are cultivated upon scientific principles. It is the young men who are doing these things,—the young men with a modern education, their minds rich with the knowledge and enthusiasm of this progressive age.

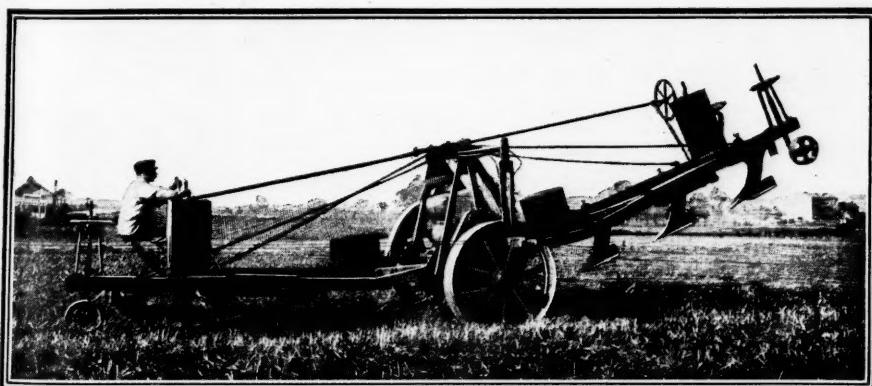
The former residents of the city grasp and understand new things better and quicker than their country neighbors. Electricity is so common to the urban householder that he gives it never a thought when he presses the button for light, heat, or power; but to the majority of the country people the strange properties of electricity are almost as much of a mystery as they were to the priests of Magi in Zoroaster's time.



PROF. CHARLES P. STEINMETZ.

(Who says that water-power will keep us from freezing and do our work when the coal supply is exhausted.)

In one of the little villages in New York State, where electric lights were being installed from a neighboring waterfall, an elderly woman was badly frightened because the electric-light wires passed her house. Her neighbors had talked of the dangers of electricity to such an extent that she was afraid of the insulated wires, which she thought contained all the power of the very lightning. Other residents of the settlement would not have their houses wired until they saw how



A TYPE OF THE ELECTRIC PLOW USED IN GERMANY.

harmless the lights are in the homes of their friends. As a matter of fact, there is not the slightest danger of being seriously hurt by a 110-volt, or ordinary lighting, circuit.

CITY COMFORTS IN THE COUNTRY VILLAGES.

The haven of rest for the farmer seems to be a snug little cottage in some rural village where the taverns and stores are always open, where the shade is deep and cool in summer, the sun warm and pleasant in fall and spring, and the nights are quiet withal. Nine-tenths of the population of such country villages, up to a thousand people, and over, is made up of retired farmers and their families. These residents have money enough to be free from care and they want to enjoy all the comforts of life. Fortunately, these little villages are nearly always located in the midst of a wealth of natural resources. The spring water of the hills is confined in a small lake and piped to the village to be distributed at a trifling cost to the various houses and to offer the very best fire protection. These municipal water systems depend upon gravity for the pressure, and cost nothing to run except for occasional repairs. In nearly every instance the introduction of the water system is followed by sewers, either installed by the village, if it is incorporated, or by individuals. The telephones leading out to the various farms are centered

in the villages. The next improvement is to install electric lights. Frequently the electric apparatus is purchased by some mill owner who finds himself with plenty of cheap water-power on hand and very little mill work for it to do. Or, in these days of reinforced concrete, dams are easily and cheaply constructed. Where the fall is only about six feet a dam of the "flow" type is erected, and if the fall is as great as forty-five feet the smallest turbines are sufficient. The greater the fall the less water required for a given horsepower. Once the dam is ready the generator is installed, direct connected to a modern turbine water-wheel, and lo! the tiny settlement is soon ablaze with electric light and vibrant with electric power.

Good roads, good water, and plenty of cheap electricity for the interurban trolley, the electric lights and the motors, combined with a wealth of pure air and fresh food, make the country an ideal place in which to live. The suburban areas about every city are creeping further and further into the rural districts. Each day the countryman becomes more citified as he rubs shoulders with his urban neighbor, and the things which once were thought extravagant luxuries for the wealthy city people are now deemed proper necessities to be enjoyed by all.

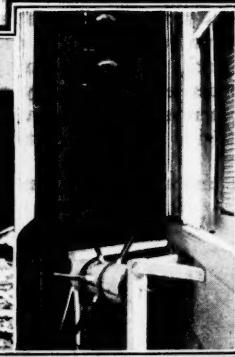
Such are the magical changes brought to the country by electricity in the past fifteen years.



THE SEVEN-HORSEPOWER DYNAMO.



A SMALL WATER-POWER DEVELOPMENT NEAR
ASHEVILLE, N. C.



METHOD OF CONTROL
FROM HOUSE.



SALVATION ARMY COLONISTS EMBARKING AT LIVERPOOL FOR CANADA.

THE SALVATION ARMY AND ENGLAND'S UNEMPLOYED.

BY AGNES C. LAUT.

A SUDDEN squall on Saskatchewan River drove our canoe in on the north shore for shelter at what looked like a half-breed's ranch-house. For fifty miles above there had not been a sign of life or settlement. For twenty-five miles below,—we afterward found,—there was not a neighbor. The nearest railroad must have been at least forty-five miles away. As we scrambled up the muddy river banks and crossed the barn-yard toward a mud-wattled log house, with staring blindless windows on each side the central door, we were perfectly confident this was the domicile of some Indian or half-breed rancher come so far afield to have free pasturage. The yowl of mongrel dogs that greeted us strengthened this expectation; but when the door opened, there stood no swarthy native! At this very Back of Beyond, under as adverse circumstances as you can imagine for a tenderfoot, the door opened on a typical English factory hand. I might

almost say, on a type of generations of factory workers, warped in body, dwarfed of brawn and brain, with the spindly limbs and bulging forehead that come from only one thing,—years of emaciation, of under-pay, and poor food, and, sometimes, no food at all.

Inside the house was one single big room, down the center of which ran a home-made table covered with the cluttered food and dishes of a week's bachelordom piled up for Sunday cleaning. There was a stove and there were a few chairs. Of beds, none was visible; only a pile of rugs to be used on the floor for the night.

The boy who opened the door was one of half a dozen brothers who came out from England four years ago, when the great agitation of the unemployed first began to be so serious in all parts of the British Isles. They had come so far afield in order that they might homestead adjoining quarter-sections and might all live in one house. When they



A TYPICAL ENGLISH FAMILY BOUND FOR CANADA.

arrived they had less than \$1000 all told,—that is, the capital of each represented barely \$150. They had belonged to that great and increasing class of people in England,—unskilled laborers,—whose savings can never under any possible circumstances exceed a few hundred dollars, and who constantly live on the ragged edge of the Great Abyss, for the simple reason that any temporary stoppage of work will topple them over the edge into destitution. They had been of the class which,—Canadian labor unions declare,—ought never to be allowed to enter the Dominion, because they can never make good and only cut the wages of skilled labor below the living standard. They were exactly representative of the class whom Canadian charity organizations protest against admitting to Canada, because out of work during winter in Canada means death, or support at some one else's expense.

Yet this family of English boys has negatived every prediction regarding their class. They have not crowded to the already over-

crowded cities. They have not entered into competition with artisan labor, and have not cut wages to a sweatshop basis. They have not added to the winter's unemployed, and they have not fallen back on charity for support. They have made good. Each boy owns 160 acres of land worth on the market \$10 an acre,—that is, each boy is worth \$1600 in place of the \$150 with which he came to Canada; and altogether they have, besides their farms, fifty-five head of cattle and some twenty horses,—another \$4000 all told. To be sure, they have not yet furnished their house; but you must remember that four years ago the unemployed of England had neither furnishings nor fuel, nor for that matter, as I saw them march the streets of London, could very many of them boast the possession of shirts. Old newspapers tucked under closely buttoned coats did duty for underwear, though the lack of socks inside tattered boots could not be hidden. And while these boys were still in the bare state of the newcomer who will not go in debt, they had a vegetable garden of ten acres that was more absolute security against want than all the free soup kitchens in London.

Face the facts of the case squarely! Four years ago these lads had only \$150 each between them and pauperism. To-day they are secure against want. Four years ago they belonged to the class that whines round you in the streets of the old country cities with pusillanimous plea for dole because of women and children whom they ought never to have had. To-day they presented us with vegetables from their garden, for which they refused to take pay. The change represents more than a transition. It is a new birth, a



PEOPLE WHO MAKE UP THE AVERAGE SALVATION-ARMY COLONY.

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GROUP OF CHILDREN OF THE TISDALE COLONY.

birth to manhood and freedom and independence and security.

THE UNEMPLOYED IN LONDON.

Go back four years! It is a November day in the streets of London. Night is settling down with a drizzle of brown fog and sleety rain. There has been a procession of 10,000 unemployed through the city this day, not of unemployable men, but of able-bodied men willing to work; so madly keen to obtain work that they trample one another for the chance of it at the dock gates, at the factory doors; men who cannot get work and whose families are dying for lack of work. And these 10,000 unemployed do not represent a fraction of all the unemployed in Great Britain. The marchers disperse, not to homes, —they have none,—but to haunts. Here, on the King's Way as the carriages whisk through the fog to theater and restaurant, gathers a line of one, two, three thousand men, shivering and shifting and waiting patiently ten hours at a stretch,—for what? For a single bowl of soup! Down on the Thames Embankment are women and young girls, as well as men, huddling on the iron

seats, sleeping against one another for warmth, surreptitiously stealing covering from the chill fog by drawing shawl or flap of the next neighbor's tattered rags across shoulders and knees. And during these times of great distress, when everybody is talking of the unemployed, the policemen have a habit of keeping close to the river-side of the broad highway, for the desperate people, who *may not work, must not suicide*. Or go down to Whitechapel near one of the Salvation Army shelters! As the night deepens the crowd of huddling old women outside becomes more vociferous, pushing and clamoring for entrance; but the door is shut. The shelter is filled to overflowing, and the weary, ragged forms outside,—one can hardly call them human beings made in the image of a God,—sink to the wet pavement, drawing shawls and skirts over shoulders to pass the night in a sleep stupor, nodding and muttering and moaning to wake with a start and sink again to a horror worse than any nightmare imagined by fiction. Or go inside the shelter! These hatless women with the rasping coughs and fierce hungry eyes are not unfits, are not derelicts, are not paupers!



A SETTLER'S HOUSE AT TISDALE.

They are people desperate for work, though £16,000,000 is annually spent in Great Britain to relieve distress.

That was four years ago. To-day the distress is manifoldly worse. It is utterly beyond the tinkering methods of individual charities. *There are to-day seven million people in Great Britain in actual want from lack of work.* The thing is appalling. The mind cannot grasp it.

THE SALVATION ARMY COLONIZATION WORK.

There, then, are the two pictures, the poor in the old land and the poor in the new land. Comment is unnecessary! Since 1906, when the unemployed assumed such tragic importance in England, the Salvation Army has brought to Canada more than 50,000 people; at last enumeration, close on 55,000 people. There is room for 50,000,000. Look at the figures and take in what they mean. I am dealing with facts. *Of those 50,000 Salvation Army colonists less than 1 per cent. has failed to make good!* Is there a single other class of immigrants of whom as much may be said?

The Salvation Army immigration work has been systematized to a degree. In a winter, twelve, twenty, as many as eighty thousand applicants in hard years, apply to the army for aid to emigrate. Out of these the army, with its thousands of records on file, weeds the unfit, physically and mentally, the vicious, the paupers. I confess after seeing how vicious a vicious English pauper can be, I do not wish he could be transferred to Canada, but I wish one Canadian winter

could be transferred to him where there are no soup kitchens. He would not then live and perpetuate his species. This may sound brutal, but when you have struggled to raise such people only to prove they cannot be raised with a derrick and do not want to be raised, there does not seem to be any valid reason why they should be allowed to prey on the public. "Only the grace of God can do anything with those old country people who have been pauperized by years of vice and free charity," said Margaret Scott, of Winnipeg, who may best be described as the Jane Addams of the Northwest. Where no records are on file with the army, special officers are detailed to look up the man's or the family's past. Men and women with black marks against their past are not sent as colonists. If the applicant has a little money, then the army colonization department will advise, report on land, investigate every offer of land or work, and protect the tenderfoot from sharks moral and financial. Passage is booked on ship for the emigrant, or the emigrant goes on the army's own chartered ships. Special trains are reserved from London to Liverpool. Breakfast awaits the emigrant there. Army officers accompany the ship. Meals are ready on the Canadian side of the ocean. Officers accompany the army trains westward and conduct the newcomers to their new home whether on land or in lumber woods; and the last words are: "*Expect hard work.*" No rosey-hued pictures of easy success are used to lure the colonist. Here is the card which General Booth presents to each emigrant on the army's chartered ships.

God carry you safely to your new home. Fearlessly calculate upon hard work. Bravely meet difficulties. Do your duty by your families. Help your comrades. Make Canada a home that will be a credit to the old land. Put God first. Stand by the army. Save your souls. Meet me in Heaven!

If the applicant has a family or dependents, then either the applicant or the army must guarantee the support of the dependents during the colonist's absence and preparation of the new home. Special care is taken of all young girls emigrating under the auspices of the army. The army discourages the settling of Salvation colonists in solid groups as likely to prevent the growth of independence and the nationalizing of the newcomer; but every army colonist is kept in touch with his officers. It is impossible to exaggerate the need and wis-

dom of this. Harrowing cases are continually coming to light in Canada of unfit and friendless colonists brought out by charitable organizations, who take no more care of their wards after bringing them to port. What the danger is to a young and friendless girl need not be told here, and, unfortunately, Canada's laws are slack to the point of bararity in just this respect.

If the applicant to the army is absolutely without money, but otherwise blameless and worthy, then one of two courses is followed: The Unemployed Workmen's act authorizes municipal authorities to aid the unemployed in emigrating. If this cannot be done, owing to short term of residence in a county, then the army advances a loan for passage and expenses till the colonist becomes established. When I said that less than 1 per cent. of the 50,000 had failed to make good, I meant that less than 1 per cent. had failed to return the loan.

One cannot but wonder if half the £16,000,000 annually spent to relieve the distress of poverty in England were applied to such systematized colonization whether there would be any unemployed question at the end of five years; for if there is one thing more than another that modern investigation has proved it is that while charity may be cheaper than justice, the necessity for charity is in the long run the most wasteful extravagance any nation can have.

A COLONIST'S EXPLANATION.

"Why," I asked the youngest of the family of boys on the Upper River, "why do so many Englishmen fail in Canada?"

"The free soup kitchens in the old country spoil them," he answered. "The free soup kitchens and the labor union hours. A fellow can't succeed in a new country on labor union hours. He has got to work harder when he's his own boss, work till his job is finished, and he has to finish quick in these short seasons or he will be out of hay and lose his stock, or he won't get enough potatoes in in spring to save buying food in winter. You see," he repeated, "it's the



THE NEWCOMERS' HOTEL AT TORONTO.

(Property of the Ontario Government; furnished and managed by the Salvation Army for the accommodation of emigrants.)

free soup kitchens. They get a man in the way of not depending on himself. Then, when he has work, he spends his wages foolishly, in the grog-shop, and doesn't look ahead. When he comes out here there are not any soup kitchens; and if he does not look out for himself he can't get on. He drifts away from the land to town, where there's help; and then he goes back to England and curses the country."

"Perhaps lonely," I suggested.

"Lonely! There's no time to be lonely out here. . . ."

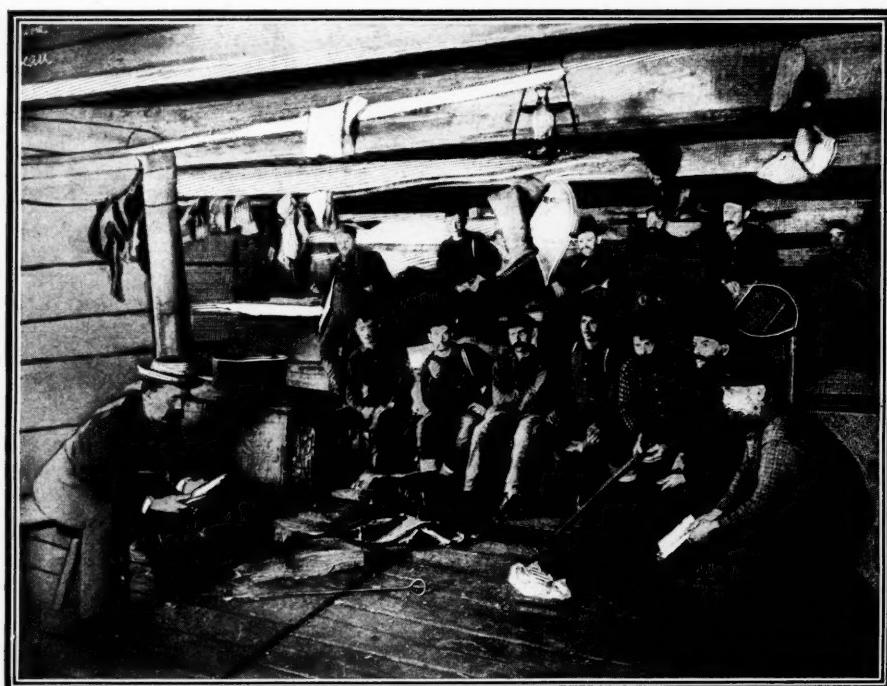
Warped of body this young fellow was from long emaciation in his past somewhere; but warped of body he will not be in the next generation. The whole mental tone of the resentful whining typical out-of-work had already changed to sturdy, alert, hard-working independence. Farther down the river we came on another colonist, not a Salvationist, but one of the English Church movement. She, too, showed the same signs of an emaciated ancestry; but the next generation of her is no pauper type. Such rubber-ball bits of bouncing health-glow as her children you could seldom see. Ten years have worked the transformation.

Thousands of examples could be given of Salvation Army colonists making good in Canada, but nearly all may be epitomized thus: "Family found in London absolutely destitute in 1906 or thereabouts; now on land worth from \$800 to \$3000; debt to the army all paid or being paid; children in sit-

uations or at school;" but this brief epitome tells nothing of the transition from physical and mental anguish to physical and mental well-being,—of the change from homeless wanderings in the clammy city fog, amid the multitudinous roar of a life pitiless as the God Moloch, to absolute security from want beside the red glow of one's own hearth fire, where the God preached by Christianity does not seem so far away.

Sometimes the newcomer is sent to the railroad camp; sometimes to the lumber gangs; often, very often, to learn the methods of the new country by hiring with a Canadian farmer; but always the aim of the army is to put the man on his own land, beside his own inglenook, free of debt. When the colonist has no money, he is, of course, conducted to the free land areas, where the \$10 registration fees and three years of homestead duties secure him title to 160 acres. When he has a little money, land can be bought at from \$5 to \$10 an acre; but nearly all the Salvation-Army colonists have

been taken to the free land and helped to choose good areas. Many colonists have settled in slightly wooded sections, where they can build their first house without cost. Hiring out with farmers in summer, with lumber gangs in winter,—tides past the first year and raises money to buy stock and implements. Wages paid run from \$20 to \$40 a month with board; so that the beginning of the second year usually sees the colonist with a team of horses, a couple of cows, and sufficient seed to begin farming for himself. Big wheat farms require too much capital for a beginner; so that nearly all the army immigrants are engaged in mixed farming, which is less chancey and always insures a living spite of frost or drought. Once the man is established in his own place work and soil will do the rest, banishing forever the hungry-eyed spectre,—Anxious Fright. So far, no Salvation-Army colonists have fallen back failures on the community for support. Whether they will continue to make good,—only time will tell.



IN A LUMBER CAMP ON THE UPPER OTTAWA, WHERE ARMY COLONISTS FIND WORK.

THE NEW CAMPAIGN FOR CIVIC BETTERMENT.

THE PITTSBURG SURVEY OF SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC CONDITIONS.

BY PAUL U. KELLOGG.

(Director of the Survey.)

MUSEUM-GOERS, to the tire of their necks and the quickening of their mental faculties, have for generations marched about plaster reproductions of the Coliseum or the glorious hill of Athens. These casts have brought back to Londoners, New Yorkers, and Chicagoans,—wherever the museum idea struck root,—the art and amleness of form into which the spirit of empire and of city-state were crystallized. During the past month one American city has reversed this process. It has held an exhibit which has presented a rigorous cross section of the civic standards the community has thus far attained. It has put itself before itself and looked at itself fearlessly and without fooling. That city is Pittsburgh.

PITTSBURG'S SELF-REVELATION.

On November 16 last, Pittsburg threw open the doors of its most beautiful building,—Carnegie Institute,—to the unflattering confessional of photographic lens and death-rate chart. In rooms above the halls of architecture, with their gods from the gables of the Parthenon, façades and arches of the Renaissance, it showed the worst barracks in the city,—Tammany Hall and Yellow Row (which have been torn down through the instrumentality of the Bureau of Health),—and hundreds of other shacks and lodgings which must go. The frescoed corridor, where Mr. Alexander's heroic paintings have spiritualized the steel mill and industrial progress, led up to a hall where there was a frieze 250 feet long, of little, crude silhouettes done with a stencil on cambric. They stood, each one, for a man, woman, or child who died last year in Pittsburg of typhoid fever, and there was a sign which indicated that a jury of sanitarians would hold the municipality responsible for seven-ninths of these deaths. They were needless. You could go from the archeological galleries, where the bones of the diplo-docus and other prehistoric mammals were displayed,—relics leading back to the geolog-

ical eras when Pittsburg's coal-fields were in the making,—to another gallery where a great death calendar showed by grim red crosses the workmen killed in Allegheny County in the course of industry in one year. The exhibits were not all iconoclastic. Many were constructive. There were pictures of the huge filter-beds of the five-and-a-half-million dollar filtration plant which the city is throwing into operation in its spirited fight for clean water; there were charts showing the reduction in typhoid fever from 593 cases in October, 1907, to 96 cases in October, 1908, and this after an epidemic of thirty-five years' standing. The house plans and general layout of some of the model mill towns which were shown set new standards for industrial districts.

There is art in the lines and symmetry and weathered mellowness of a battered Doric column. And just so there was inspiration and a sense of the forward drive of America in this imperfect, half-developed, life-reckless, struggling image of itself which this town looked out upon. Admittedly there was less of cultural grace in this civic exhibit than in the classic plasters of the customary museum. But of the quickening new breadth of vision which grew out of the exhibit (the tired necks mounted up into the tens of thousands) there were many evidences. Civic reform became good copy for the newspapers. The Engineering Society of Western Pennsylvania endeavored to round up its full membership in attendance; here was new work for the craft. Bishop Canevin came for fifteen minutes, stayed for two hours and a half, and sent out a ringing message to his people to attend. City councils, boards of trade, civic clubs, had separate evenings. Labor leaders went back to their locals and urged a grand turnout on a Sunday; and heading the work up, a civic improvement commission was announced by the Mayor, representative in membership and, perhaps, broader in scope than any hitherto commissioned in an American city.

AN ERA OF CIVIC REFORM.

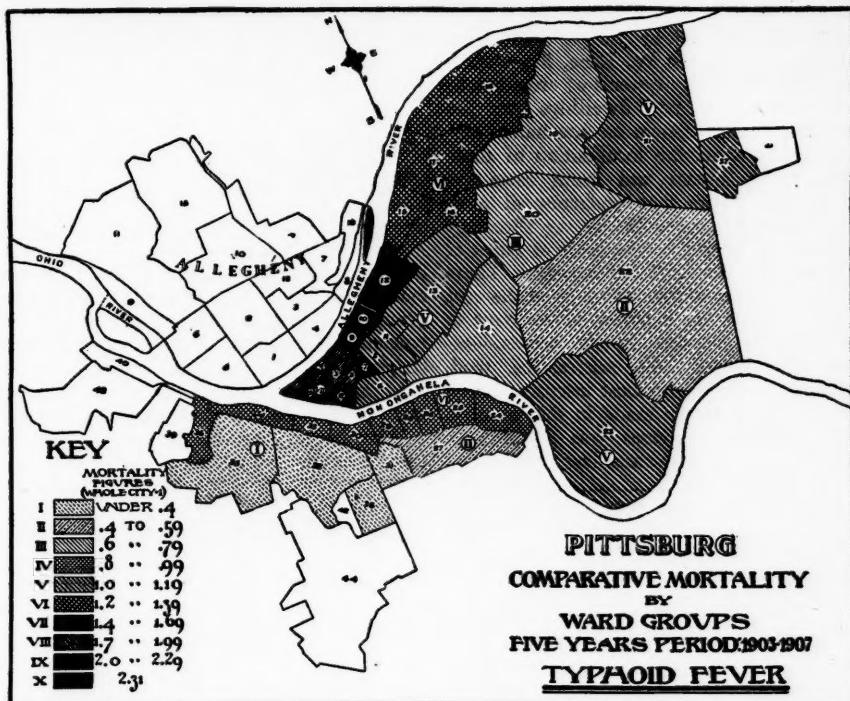
The occasion of the Pittsburg Civic Exhibit was the joint convention in that city of the National Municipal League and the American Civic Association, which brought civic leaders and representatives of municipalities to Pittsburg from all parts of the country. A combination of events in the civic history of the city gave it special significance. In 1906 George W. Guthrie, a Democrat, was elected on an independent ticket as Mayor of Pittsburg; and for three years Pittsburg has had a reform administration comparable in many respects to the Low régime in New York, one which has brought relief and retrenchment after years of factional fighting within the Republican machine. In December, 1907, by a decision of the Supreme Court, Allegheny City was finally merged with Pittsburg, and the greater city now takes rank with Boston, St. Louis, Baltimore. Early in the fall the city celebrated its one hundred and fiftieth anniversary, and a street pageant stirred local pride and loyalty in its interpretation of the stages of progress from the blockhouse days of Washington's youth to Pittsburg's present leadership as a great industrial capital. The Civic Exhibit came, then, at a time when aggressive movements were asserting themselves in Pittsburg for the advancement of civic well-being, and to this end the city is in position to draw upon the body of facts collected throughout the past year and a half by what has been known as the Pittsburg Survey. This Survey is affording Pittsburg a first-hand inventory of civic and living conditions.

A NATIONAL REFORMATORY AGENCY.

The exhibit as a method for social reform is a modern invention. Perhaps the first compelling example of it in this country was the Tenement House Exhibit, which was opened by Governor Roosevelt in 1900 in New York, and through which the Tenement House Committee of the New York Charity Organization Society inaugurated the campaign which resulted in the creation of that new piece of municipal machinery, the Tenement-House Department. Baltimore had the first of the tuberculosis exhibits in this country, which have developed so surprisingly into a series of traveling exhibits and into the great international show which has been exhibited during the past few months in Washington and in New York.

Baltimore has had also a remarkable clean-milk show; and sweated-industries exhibits have been held in Philadelphia, Chicago, and Boston. The Congestion Show in New York last spring gave graphic representation to another vital phase of the municipal problem, as did the Taxpayers' Exhibit in mid-fall in New York, which held departmental and borough budgets up to critical analyses. It will be seen that all of these exhibits had to do each with a special problem or need. It has been the distinction of the Pittsburg exhibit that it has been rather a reflection of many phases of the city's status and thus enabled the ordinary citizen to see the town as a whole. The national significance of this type of exhibit was immediately recognized. The American Civic Association passed resolutions urging that it be taken to other of the industrial cities; and requests have come in from Detroit, Chicago, and Cleveland. The Bureaus of Health and Filtration, the Tuberculosis League, the Juvenile Court, the Civic Club, the Playground Association, Kingsley House, the new Associated Charities, the Architectural Club, and the Pittsburg chapter of the American Institute of Architects are some of the organizations which put forward the needs of the city as they see them.

More, the Pittsburg exhibit was made the means of focalizing upon one town the facts and preachers of several of the important movements to which I have already made reference. It was carried out under a Citizens' Reception and Entertainment Committee, of which Oliver McClintock, a business man of standing, was the head, but was organized under the direction of Benjamin C. Marsh, secretary of the Committee on Congestion of Population of New York. Point was given to the elaborate exhibit transferred by this committee to Pittsburg by maps showing those city blocks which have been built up solidly, comparable to the lower end of Manhattan. Charts and placards showed the meaning of the town-planning bill now before the British Parliament, and there were maps illustrating the activities of the Continental cities along these lines. Similarly, a large section of the New York Taxpayers' Exhibit was transferred to Carnegie Institute, by the Bureau of Municipal Research, and it is announced that hereafter, instead of lump-sum estimates, Pittsburg departmental chiefs will itemize their figures. Again, the New York City Club exhibit of traction was installed by John P.



Fox, together with his notable private collection from European sources. This attracted noteworthy attention in connection with the present involved transit situation in Pittsburg.

UNIQUE METHODS OF THE SURVEY.

The central hall was given over to the exhibit of the Pittsburg Survey, which comprised seventeen sections and was organized by Frank E. Wing, associate director. The working plan of the Survey as a piece of interstate co-operation is, itself, interesting and the first of its kind for an American city. It has been called the Pittsburg Survey, not because its findings apply solely to Pittsburg, but because the Pennsylvania steel district has been the laboratory where the work has been done. The responsible organization initiating and carrying out the plan has been the Charities Publication Committee, a non-commercial board, which publishes *Charities and The Commons*, and is a constituent committee of the New York Charity Organization Society. The work has been financed by appropriations from the Russell Sage Foundation for the Improvement of

Living Conditions. The undertaking has enlisted the co-operation of some of the foremost national leaders, East and West, in sanitary and civic work. A group of these experts were brought into Pittsburg in September, 1907, and made a quick diagnosis of the situation, on the basis of which a series of investigations was prosecuted throughout the year.*

The exhibit offered an opportunity for bringing out in their local bearings certain suggestive lines of inquiry. The Survey had the advantage, on the one hand, of being an independent impartial student of the situation; and on the other, of enlisting co-operation from settlement workers, sanitary inspectors, school teachers, probation officers, physicians, lawyers, claim agents, employers, and labor leaders. A series of large-size wall maps showed the physical problem underlying Pittsburg, administrative areas, and social institutions. Charts and diagrams analyzed the make-up of the wage-earning population and the sources of the immigrant labor

* The first publication of the reports will be in three special numbers of *Charities and The Commons*, and, later, in a series of volumes issued by the Russell Sage Foundation.

force, and there were a group of remarkable drawings in charcoal by Joseph Stella, and photographs by Lewis W. Hine, illustrating types of workers. By systems of cross hatchings, the spread of new dwellings over the urban district was shown on one hand; and on the other hand, the localization of those wards where disease and death rates are highest, and where that undertow of morbidity must be checked before the Pittsburgh case rates get down to the level of cities of corresponding size and importance. There was a section on water, which gave the cost of typhoid fever for a period of one year to workingmen's families in six wards,—expenses for doctors' bills, nurses, ice, food, medicines, funerals, the most intensive analysis of disease costs yet made in this country. The total for 448 cases was \$59,262.50. There were over 5000 cases last year.

TYPHOID FEVER

Is a preventable disease

Known by modern science
to depend for its very existence upon lax methods
of handling food, drink and waste.

THE PITTSBURG SURVEY

Has made a concrete study of the cost
of TYPHOID FEVER
in six typical wards (8, 11, 21, 25, and 26),
for a period of one year.

July 1, 1906, to July 1, 1907.

The results given below are for 448 cases, which the investigator was able to locate, out of 1,029 cases reported for the given period.

The loss in Wages and Expenses for these 448 cases was as follows:

Loss in wages.....	\$28,899.65
Hospital expenses.....	4,166.50
Doctors' bills.....	12,899.00
Cost of nurses.....	1,965.50
Medicines and drugs.....	2,640.60
Milk.....	1,810.10
Ice.....	629.20
Servants (extra).....	861.50
Other expenses.....	1,204.45
Funeral expenses (twenty-six deaths).....	3,186.00
Total.....	\$59,262.50

Average cost in loss of wages and expenses for each typhoid patient..... \$130.00
Average expenses and loss in wages for each typhoid death..... \$2,240.00

The death calendar for industry in Allegheny County, with its 526 red crosses for one year, raised two groups of questions.

One placard read:

CAN PITTSBURG CUT DOWN ITS INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS?

526 men were KILLED at work in Allegheny County in 12 months.
Pittsburg has stamped out SMALLPOX.
Its physicians are fighting TUBERCULOSIS.
The municipality is checking TYPHOID.
Cannot engineers, employers, foremen, and workers get together in a systematic campaign to reduce accidents?

And another made these significant statements:

51 per cent. of those killed were married men with families to support.
30 per cent. of those killed were single men partly or wholly supporting a family.
What takes the place of the wages of these breadwinners?
What resources of their own have these families to fall back on?
What share of the loss is shouldered by the employer?

A neighboring section was given up to conditions among the 611 women and girls who make "stogies" in Pittsburg, one of the group of industries employing wage-earning women. A column of photographs showed strippers working in damp, unventilated cellars, families sleeping and working in the same rooms, and a typical sweatshop interior.

The housing exhibit was twofold, indicated by these two placards:

WANTED

A STATE LAW TO EMPOWER
the Bureau of Health to CONDEMN and VACATE
Unsanitary Dwellings.

WANTED

PITTSBURG MONEY to go into hundreds of
LOW-COST MODERN HOMES
for Pittsburg's Workers.

A further section interpreted the need for more and better housing in the mill towns. The provision of shelter in the steel district has broken down, so far as the immigrant working population is concerned. These three placards put the pith of the matter:

HOMESTEAD

Has no ordinance against overcrowding.
In 21 courts the Pittsburg Survey found 1,308 persons living in 505 rooms.

Of 239 families,

51 lived in one-room tenements.
157 lived in tenements with an average of three or more persons to a room.

HOMESTEAD

Has no ordinance prohibiting privy vaults.
No ordinance requiring an adequate water supply.
26 PRIVY VAULTS WITH 144 COMPARTMENTS.

In twenty-one courts the Pittsburg Survey found THE SOLE toilet accommodations for 1,308 people. Only three tenements with running water in them. An average of fifty people to each yard hydrant or pump.

IF THE PITTSBURG DISTRICT

Swells in Population

In the next ten years as it has in the past ten,
WHAT WILL BE THE RESULT?

A series of sections showed housing plans and specifications of the Co-partnership Tenants, Limited, England, the Bourneville

Trust and the Krupp Company, Essen; not with the idea of comparing the most progressive housing work in the old country with the worst American conditions, but with the idea of drawing upon the experience of the world for suggestions in meeting the housing needs created by the razing of old shacks and the swelling of the populations of our industrial districts. The spirit of the Survey in this field and the general movement for the improvement of living conditions were put forward at the opening session of the conventions by Grosvenor Atterbury, architect of the Phipps Tenements, and by Robert W. de Forest, chairman of Charities Publication Committee, vice-president of the Sage Foundation, and former Tenement House Commissioner of New York.

There were those, of course, who were afraid such a civic exhibit would give the city a black eye. If Pittsburg were singled out and held up to view, it would hurt business and manufacturers would keep away. The reverse has proved to be the case, so far as can be judged by the developments of the past month. The delegates from all parts of the country in attendance at the Civic meetings recognized scenes and facts only too familiar in their own cities. But they recognized also that here was a city that was not afraid to face them, that was ridding itself of the most serious health drain (typhoid fever) upon any American city, was making a tenement-house census, and was proposing big, broad-gauge measures to provide an adequate, sanitary supply of shelter for the great industrial forces drawn into its river valleys. Here was not a city lying down, but a city aggressive, informing itself, purposeful.

There is no better way of gauging this attitude than in some of the editorial utterances of the local press. The Pittsburg *Sun* took to task a contemporary which had responded to certain criticisms with the assertion that "We get there just the same." Said the *Sun*:

It is more comfortable to the body politic to rest in the fool's paradise of assurance than it is "getting somewhere" that seems to be desirable. It is better, however, if more disquieting, for this body to know that there are serious morbid conditions in it which must be remedied even at the cost of some pain and effort in order that what is achieved in material ways may bless us and become permanent.

On ways ahead, the Pittsburg *Gazette-Times* had this to say:

Only by organized effort, the effort of so-called utilitarians directed into beneficent chan-

nels, but spurred by the same restless and determined spirit which animates these men in their private business, can Pittsburg come to be such a community of comfort and contentment as its place in the world demands.

But perhaps the most formidable assurance of Pittsburg's approach to the future lies in the prompt action of Mayor Guthrie in appointing the Pittsburg Civic Improvement Commission, and the known utterances and accomplishment of the man at the head of it, Mr. English, who in his three years' presidency of the Pittsburg Chamber of Commerce, gave new scope and meaning to the function of that body of business men.

At some future date Pittsburg may well have another civic exhibit, when the line of typhoid silhouettes has been further reduced,—perhaps to the zero point,—when the civic framework of Pittsburg has been as radically improved, as its waterways will be improved when the full series of dams of the Allegheny and Monongahela are completed, when the anti-smoke campaign has been so far successful that the museum directors will no longer have to scrub and whiten their architectural models, and when there will not be so much rank truth in the analogy of the economist who compares the torsos of the Greek deities to the maimed or disproportional bodies of too many modern factory workers; and when Mr. Carnegie,—who knows?—instead of presenting foreign nations with huge replicas of the skeleton of the diplodocus, may send out a new physical norm for the *genus homo*, specie American steel-worker, scored not only as to tonnage and output efficiency, but as to length of effective trade life; and ask the world to beat it.

With Pittsburg on the march in a civic sense, other American cities may have to look out for their laurels. The point has not been better put than in an address at the opening of these civic meetings by Robert A. Woods, of South End House, Boston, himself an old Pittsburger and a collaborator in the Pittsburg Survey. He said:

We all remember how Chicago, on account of some of the crude moral by-products of its growth, came to be an object of scorn from many sources at home and abroad. By creating the World's Fair and by the exceptionally intelligent organization of civic and social betterment, Chicago has compelled the respect of the country and the world. Pittsburg succeeded Chicago as the chosen example of the cynics; Pittsburg is substantially taking to heart these large plans for associated and public enterprises through which alone, as all the world is finding, a twentieth century city's prosperity goes hand in hand with its honor.

THE TARIFF, ITS REVISERS, AND THE TRUSTS.

BY HERBERT E. MILES.

[Mr. Miles has recently appeared before the Ways and Means Committee at Washington in behalf of the independent manufacturers and the consumers. Mr. Miles is a manufacturer of farming implements, wagons, and carriages.—THE EDITOR.]

NO good business can permanently endure unless it is conducted systematically and based upon principles of equity and common sense. The tariff is the greatest business proposition that ever comes before the American people. It is all inclusive, vitally affecting every industry, its progress or retrogression, the cost of living, the volume and nature of international trade, and all other material interests of our 90,000,000 people. And what might I not say as to moral effects.

In these days of infinite complexities a man does well if he knows his own business thoroughly. It is ridiculous, therefore, to expect the consumer to advise intelligently on tariff rates. It is as impossible for some fifteen Congressmen constituting a Ways and Means Committee to take up a tariff once in a dozen years and learn much about it in a hasty and cursory examination. The House of Representatives is a rapidly changing body. No Ways and Means Committee since the Civil War has contained any number of men who had had any previous experience in tariff-making. Each committee was new to its task. A tariff bill is made by the majority members of the Ways and Means Committee, the minority being excused from attendance while the work is in progress. Mr. McKinley himself was the only man of the majority members of the Ways and Means Committee which framed the McKinley bill who had had previous experience.

So of the Wilson bill, there were only three members of the majority who had had previous experience, and that as minority members on the McKinley committee, where, as stated, they had too great consideration for the majority even to be present when the work was done. These three men, with others wholly inexperienced, made the Wilson bill. There were of the minority members of the Wilson committee five Republicans of previous experience, whose experi-

ence, however, was neither desired nor made use of.

This so-called free-trade measure gave its first protection to the Standard Oil Company. A friend of mine asked Mr. H. H. Rogers, manager of the Standard Oil Company, how he got that tariff. Mr. Rogers answered by putting his head back and laughing. No better comment was possible. This so-called "free-trade" Wilson law put tariff upon sugar, which caused sugar stocks to go up ten points in forty-eight hours. A Senator from Louisiana exposed a sugar man who offered him \$30,000 in money at that time. "Bought, bought, bought," said President Cleveland.

The Dingley committee had among its majority members only four men, Messrs. Dingley, Payne, Dalzell, and Hopkins, a newspaper editor, and three attorneys, and Mr. McMillan, of the minority, with previous experience. That men so inexperienced should have hastily made a tariff for this nation was worse than a blunder,—it was a crime. They only made a great, blind jab at the task. They began wrong by taking classifications more than a generation old, inapplicable to our time, having neither knowledge nor time to consider that important phase of the subject adequately. Consequently, we have had 30,000 lawsuits on classifications alone, nine-tenths of which might have been avoided. They put together in one classification, for instance, buttons, stoves, electric fans, revolvers, nails, dress trimmings, railway cars, enameled portraits, "cannon for war, and crosses for churches." With the enactment of this law the United States Congress went into the trust-making business up to its eyes. It was controlled by no guiding principles, no rule of measurement. Rates were doled out like liquor at a revel.

Congress, in its refusal to establish the machinery necessary to the securing and collection of exact and underlying information

in the making of the coming tariff, rests only upon a bullheaded insistence upon ancient habit, and back of this insistence is seen the ugly visages of trusts, a great part of whose revenues comes from the excesses of loosely made tariffs.

The present Ways and Means Committee has upon it only two men who have had previous experience in tariff-making,—Chairman Payne and Mr. Dalzell.

Contrast the probabilities of their accomplishment with what was done in Germany: There a body of twenty experts worked five years in the preparation of the German tariff, consulting in that time 2000 other experts. Their inquiry was exhaustive, non-partisan, semi-judicial. "No proof, no protection," was their requirement. The nicest possible balance was made between all interests, domestic and foreign. The report of this commission was held up by the German Reichstag many months, for there, as here, the right to make a tariff rests with the legislative body, the commission acting only as the servant of that body. In the end, however, the legislature made only one change of consequence in the bill as recommended by the commission. The Agrarians gave it an unfair twist to their benefit and in so far to the national hurt. Excepting in this respect the bill has proved almost perfect, and is, in extreme degree, the cause of the marvelous advancement of Germany as a manufacturing nation and a world power commercially. No more beneficent and intelligent legislation in commercial directions has been vouchsafed any nation.

Fifty years ago, before we had trusts, it made small difference how high the tariff was, for the consumer was protected by internal competition. As I heard a Governor of Massachusetts say twenty-five years ago, "What difference would it make if the tariff on four-cent cotton was \$1000 a yard?" None, because cheap cottons are made in this country at the lowest possible cost and, under competition, sold at that cost plus a very small profit. In competition only the consumer found protection. And let us not forget that the consumer requires protection even as a condition precedent to special legislation protecting the manufacturer or any other class. When, however, Congress makes a duty so high as to be prohibitive of imports it shuts out foreign competition, leaves the domestic consumer wholly dependent upon home production and subject to trust exploitation.

Take my own business, for instance: a 20 per cent. duty would more than cover the difference in cost of production here and abroad. The duty is, however, on many of my products, 45 per cent. In this prohibitive duty lies a Congressional permit amounting to an invitation that those engaged in my industry consolidate, form a trust, and under this Congressional permit, which delivers the home market to us exclusively, add to our prices the difference between the necessary 20 per cent. of protection and the 45 per cent. given in the law. Intelligent business men are to be expected to make use of an advantage like this especially granted by Congress, and this is just what every one of our big trusts has done.

A protective tariff is supposedly given primarily for the benefit of labor. It should measure, as Mr. Taft insists, the difference in the cost of production here and abroad. A glance at the list of our great industrial trusts shows to what outrageous bounds went the makers of the Dingley law. The Standard Oil Company, for instance, which heads the list, has a total wage cost of 6 per cent., while the duty is for the main part 99 per cent., or fifteen times the wage cost, and this, remember, first given in the so-called free-trade Wilson law and continued in the Dingley law. The needlessness of this rate is evidenced by the fact that this trust shipped abroad last year \$78,228,819, selling it on the international market, as the Bureau of Corporations discloses, at 35 to 65 per cent. less price than charged our domestic consumers. The tariff battens this one trust to the extent of \$35,000,000 per year, and yet Congressional "dignity and economy" propose to leave the consumers open to dozens of like abuses rather than spend \$100,000 per year on a safeguarding commission.

Take the Steel Trust, which shipped abroad over \$40,000,000 of rolling-mill products to the open markets of the world at 20 per cent. under the prices charged home consumers, adding, to this extent, the tariff to its domestic prices and making such profits as the world had never dreamed of until the formation of this trust with the especial assistance of the Dingley law. Lobbying isn't costly when it brings such returns and doubles prices in a few years.

Steel costs as little to produce here as anywhere in the world, as stated by Mr. Carnegie recently, yet the tariff on iron bars, base sizes, was made \$12 per ton, or 80 per cent. of the then cost, and against \$1 addi-

tional cost for small sizes \$4 more was added to the rate, making \$16.

Every woman who has bought a new stovetid in the last twelve years, every farmer who has bought a plow, every boy who bought a pocket-knife, has made an unnecessary and forced contribution, by order of Congress, to the Steel Trust, and likewise to every other industrial trust in the United States, for I use steel only by way of illustration and because some of its best men agree with me.

The total wage cost to the Steel Corporation for mining, transportation, and conversion into rolling-mill products is 25 per cent. of the selling price; the tariff is from 17 to 65 and 80 per cent. of total costs. We may in a large measure attribute the foundation of a locomotive trust to the Dingley law, which gave locomotive builders 45 per cent. tariff, although locomotives are shipped abroad freely, and none can be imported. There are few builders, and they could not be expected to continue as independent and competing manufacturers with the invitation of Congress to combine and add what they wished of 45 per cent. duty to their selling prices. Likewise the Linseed Oil Trust, formerly competitive, with only 3 per cent. total wages in cost of refining and a 50 per cent. tariff. The importations being practically prohibited, they graciously accepted the invitation of Congress and added 30 to 50 per cent. to their selling prices.

Glucose, made of corn, and of course more cheaply here than elsewhere, bears a tariff of 55 per cent., the total wage 7 per cent., domestic production to the value of \$24,566,932, and the ability to do without protection manifested by exportations to the extent of \$3,000,000 per year.

It is clear beyond question that every big trust gets about one-fourth of its selling price by grace of Congress at the expense of the consumer, and that Congress must change its ways, or independent endeavor must entirely cease in the more important forms of production, as it is rapidly ceasing.

This does not mean that protection shall be withdrawn from trusts, for they and their workmen are as much entitled to protection as are others. It does mean, however, that one law, the Sherman act, shall not declare trusts and combinations in restraint of trade criminal, and another law, being the tariff, offer an extreme inducement for the formation of trusts in violation of the other law. When Congress stands upon its dignity in

this matter and insists that it will do what its own members elect, it is time that the people speak with a voice that can be heard not only in Washington but perchance around the world. The question is largely whether Congress shall hear the voice of the people or shall longer listen to the insistent, and heretofore compelling, voice of great private interests. What has been every one's business has been no one's business. We must have a commission to control the tariff, or we must do away with protection, an impossible alternative. Tariff-making in its formative steps must be taken out of the realm of politics, away from selfish interests and secret influence, and placed in the hands of men selected for the work, high-minded, semi-judicial, non-partisan, acting with that judgment and integrity for which our courts are distinguished, and, what is very important, with ample time to do the work well.

An excessive and trust-making tariff is a blow at labor, in that it diminishes hours of work by curtailing the output of the smaller factories, raises the cost of living beyond reason, as is shown on every hand, and lastly because, by diminishing the profits of old-fashioned competitive employers, it keeps down the wage-earner's daily rate and his chance for a share in the better profits that should obtain. It is entirely beyond question that Mr. Taft sees these things clearly. He has dedicated every fiber of his being to the making of a just tariff based upon evidence and fact, and giving full and equal justice alike to the customer, the wage-earner, and the manufacturer. This is a great dedication in more ways than one. The country supports him. Congress as a whole is against him, but yielding slowly. Every patriotic citizen should require of his Congressman and others the support of Mr. Taft, and the final settlement of the question in a general way by the institution of a commission or board of experts who shall not act only semi-occasionally and spasmodically, but shall devote their lives ably, impartially, and continuously to the problem.

The Ways and Means Committee certainly desires to serve the country, and to make illustrious its members. Why should they not desire such necessary assistance as will enable them to rival Germany in their tariff accomplishment and be forever distinguished as makers of the first honest and just tariff made in this generation,—a truly protective measure?

HOW CANADA LOOKS AT AMERICAN TARIFF-MAKING.

BY ANDREW MACPHAIL.

CANADIANS are not insensible to the movement which is gathering head in the United States for freer trade. They have heard Mr. Carnegie say that in one industry at least protection was no longer required. They heard Mr. Vogel, speaking for the tanners before the Committee on Ways and Means of the House of Representatives, say that they would willingly agree to a reduction of the duty on leather in exchange for free hides. They have heard Mr. Taft's innocent inquiry, "Where are the consumers?" and Mr. Hill's declaration, "If this Congress does not revise the tariff the next Congress will." They have read in the *Nation* that "Mr. Taft, during his Presidency, could do nothing more useful than to join Canada and the United States by new and far-reaching reciprocity treaties." They realize that during the last forty years the situation in the United States has changed, that the mills of the twin cities St. Paul and Minneapolis require hard Manitoba wheat; that the furniture-makers of Michigan require lumber; that the purveyors of news print require pulp-wood; that the manufacturers of New England require coal for their engines and food for their workmen.

In Canada also there is a desire for freer trade largely stimulated by the increased cost of living and by the belief that protection leads to the corruption of public life. A memorial to the government in 1906 by the Dominion Grange, the Farmers' Association of Ontario, and the Manitoba Grain Growers' Association reads: "We ask, in the coming revision of the tariff, that the protective principle be wholly eliminated; and as proof of our sincerity we will gladly assent to the entire abolition of the whole list of duties on agricultural imports." A resolution of the Trades and Labor Congress of Canada, which claims to represent 200,000 organized workmen, reads: "That, while free trade in labor is held by our employers to be necessary for the protection of their interests, we hold that free trade in the products of labor is equally necessary for our well-being."

CANADA'S ATTITUDE TOWARD ENGLAND.

There is one question upon which Canadians have made up their minds. They will make no proposals, and they will have nothing to do with any proposals, which would put England at a disadvantage. What arrangements the United States shall make about the import of goods is for them to decide. If they decrease their tariff it will be because that measure appears best in their own interests. If it should turn out to be in the interests of Canada also Canadians would not object. If, on the other hand, Canada should reduce her tariff, it will be because it suits her own purposes; and, if it should suit the United States, Canadians will not object.

But England is now a partner in the Canadian deal, and the final answer will be that we are doing business with England just now. Our hearts and our treasure lie there. England is treating us handsomely. A respect and affection has grown up between us. She sends us the most charming of her nobility to grace Rideau Hall. She professes satisfaction over the hand we gave in South Africa, and makes us feel that we played the man. When we go to London she makes much of us; and now they say that they are going to tax themselves for our benefit; and, owing to increasing preferences on our part, they will send us their goods at a cheaper rate than we pay at present, and so reduce the cost of living in Canada. In short, the springs of loyalty to a noble tradition, of affection for kinsmen who yet occupy the old homes, of a wider patriotism, of a desire to be full partakers in the glory of a remembrance of old achievement, which during generations of absence had dwindled to a small trickle, have broken forth afresh. This is the basis of the new imperialism, and it must be taken into account by all who would deal with Canada.

CANADIAN-AMERICAN RECIPROCITY.

For fifty years, from 1846 to 1896, Canada made a continuous effort to gain entrance

into the markets of the United States. The movement began in the former year, when Great Britain abolished the Corn Laws, through which the colonies lost a preferential duty for their products in the mother country. The Governor-General, Lord Elgin, went to Washington in the hope of obtaining a treaty, which he succeeded in doing by skillful diplomacy and unbounded hospitality in the year 1854. For twelve years the arrangement gave general satisfaction, but was abrogated by the United States in 1866. Then began the efforts for its renewal, which were continued for thirty years. In 1865 when the Canadian Ministers were promoting Confederation in England, they urged the policy of renewing the treaty, and efforts were made through Mr. Adams, American Minister in London, and the British Minister at Washington, Sir F. Bruce, but the negotiations failed. The same year Messrs. Galt and Howland went to Washington and secured permission to send a delegation representing all the Provinces, but they returned empty handed. The next negotiations were those of 1869 conducted by the British Minister at Washington and John Rose, the Canadian Minister of Finance; but it is difficult to know precisely what offer Canada made, as the negotiations were believed to be private, and the papers referring to the subject are now lost. Again, in 1871, reciprocity made its appearance, but the American commissioners declined the proposal on the ground that "the renewal of the treaty was not in their interests and would not be in accordance with the sentiments of their people."

In 1873 the National Board of Trade of the United States memorialized Congress to appoint a commission to frame a treaty, and the Canadian Government replied that the subject, if approved of by Congress, would receive their fullest consideration. In 1873 George Brown was appointed British plenipotentiary for the negotiation of a new treaty, and a draft was made of a treaty to remain in force for twenty-one years, but the United States Senate adjourned without even taking a vote upon it. Finally, in 1879, a higher tariff was enacted in Canada, but it retained the previous offer of reciprocity. The only result was that Congress passed a retaliatory law. In 1887 the opposition in the Canadian Parliament put on record their adhesion to the principle of unrestricted reciprocity. In 1888, at the conference over the new fishery treaty between Secretary Bayard, Sir Julian Pauncefote, Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, and

Sir Charles Tupper, a settlement was offered "in consideration of a mutual arrangement providing for greater freedom of commercial intercourse." The American plenipotentiary, however, declined to ask the President for authority to consider the proposal. The Canadian elections were fought out upon the question of unrestricted reciprocity, which had been adopted by the Liberals, and they were defeated, largely owing to the belief that such a measure would lead to political union with the United States. The Conservatives, however, upon their return to power renewed the attempt in 1892 with Secretary Blaine, but the negotiations were broken off. Finally, upon the accession to power of the Liberals, Sir Wilfrid Laurier took the matter up afresh, but he returned with a final message to his own people: "There will be no more pilgrimages to Washington. We are turning our hopes to the Old Motherland."

CANADA'S INCREASED FOREIGN TRADE.

The abrogation of the Elgin-Marcy treaty in 1866 brought much hardship to Canada. For a series of years before the denunciation of the treaty by the United States the traffic between the two countries had an average yearly value of \$75,000,000. For a corresponding period after the abrogation the value of the trade declined to \$57,000,000 a year. The aggregate of Canada's foreign trade for the last year in which the treaty was in force amounted to \$160,409,456; the year following it declined to \$139,202,615. The loss fell with greater force upon the agricultural community, which had then no foreign markets but the United States. Under the stress of those bad times there was a small though bitter cry for annexation. In the seventh year, however, Canada's foreign trade had risen to \$235,301,203. The balance of trade was against the United States.

To the credit of Canada her people sought new paths, and in a few years were competing with the United States in the foreign markets of the world. Goods which had previously sold in New York and Boston were now sold in the Maritime Provinces, in Newfoundland, in the West Indies, and in England. Canada learned in a hard school the valuable lessons that she had lakes, and seas, and rivers of her own whereon she might freight her goods in ships built from her own forests. The Canadians, led by Macdonald, faced the situation boldly. They replied by the enactment of a policy of protection which had in it a certain justification for being char-

acterized as national. The scattered colonies which fringed the northern border of the United States were driven together by a community of interest which in time developed into community of sentiment.

RAILROAD EXPANSION.

This desire for reciprocity with the United States arose from a perception of the simple geographical fact that the mountains of America, and consequently the valleys, run in a northerly direction. The refusal to grant reciprocity compelled Canada to convert North and South into East and West. That has been done by the system of railways and canals. Canada has built 25,000 miles of railway at a cost of \$1,200,000,000, and of this 20 per cent. has been contributed from the public funds. Upon the public business \$365,000,000 has been expended; that is the amount of the debt, but there is upon deposit in the banks more than \$500,000,000. At the moment there are two more transcontinental railways building, one of which will cost \$150,000,000.

For the sake of encouraging her industries Canada contributed in bounties on iron and steel \$9,000,000, and to-day Canadian rails are selling in India against the world. Last year goods were manufactured to the value of \$718,000,000, and yet the home market is not fully supplied.

It is useless to pretend that Canada has no interest in proposals which may be made for freer trade with the United States. The Maritime Provinces are especially concerned, since for forty years they have suffered most from being cut off from trade with the adjoining seaboard of New England.

In spite of the recent world-wide depression the tables of trade and navigation for the twelve months ending March 31, 1908, show that the year yielded the largest foreign trade in the history of Canada. The exports were \$280,006,606, and the imports \$370,786,525; of these exports agriculture yielded \$246,960,968.

IMPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES GREATER THAN FROM ENGLAND.

And yet, notwithstanding these mutual efforts to hamper the exchange of commodities between the two countries, the imports from the United States last year amounted to \$210,652,825, and the exports to \$113,516,600. England took \$134,488,056 and gave back \$94,959,471. These tables show, curiously enough, that tariffs, and preferences,

and surtaxes, and spite enactments are under ordinary circumstances but minor influences on trade movement. Canadians, for example, bought from the United States last year, according to the tables, almost twice as much as they exported to that country; and they exported to Great Britain 40 per cent. more than they imported from it. In spite of a customs preference of one-third in favor of British goods, imports from the United States are greater than those from Great Britain, with a tendency to grow even more rapidly. Exports to the United States have doubled within the last nine years, while in the same time the exports to Great Britain have only increased by about one-third.

The attitude of the United States toward Canada has been that of the petty trader who declines to do business with a man because their fathers had a disagreement. To his own hurt he blinds himself to the fact that a transaction may be profitable to both parties to it. This attitude on the part of the United States was not entirely unreasonable. Indeed, if ever there was a case in which retaliation was likely to do good, here was one,—a large community side by side with a smaller one, two peoples descended from the same stock, speaking somewhat similar languages, living in the same environment, and separated by a boundary which was wholly artificial. The United States was also aware that Montreal was a center of conspiracy against the North, and that ships had gone from Canadian ports to force their blockade.

But all this old bitterness has passed away and the frame of mind of Canada at least is one of good-natured banter toward an elder brother. Young men from the United States are coming to Canada in increasing numbers. They are found in factories, offices, universities, churches, and clubs. They are crowding the Western lands. They make good citizens because they take hold of Canadian institutions, and, helping to work them, become Canadians.

Canada is now so secure in her political status as part of the empire that she has no fear of what trade can do. The preference which is granted to England has a basis in sentiment, but also in the necessity for cheaper goods. Sixty-two per cent. of the people live on or near the farms. They are vitally interested in cheaper goods from the United States or from England. The only reservation they make is that in any readjustment of the tariff England shall not be put at a disadvantage.

GIFFORD PINCHOT AND HIS FIGHT FOR OUR NATIONAL RESOURCES.*

BY HEWITT THOMAS.

ONE of President Roosevelt's callers, the other day, when the Conservation Conference was in session in Washington, told the President that he was anxious to help out in the conservation movement and was ready to receive orders and instructions from the Chief Executive.

"Go and see Gifford Pinchot," said Mr. Roosevelt. "I guarantee he will keep you as busy as he has me."

When Theodore Roosevelt admits that he has been "kept busy" by any one the inference is distinctly favorable to the man who has kept him busy.

Old Sir Dietrich Erandis, Europe's famous forester, to whom Mr. Pinchot bore a letter of introduction, back in 1890, told the young man he ought to go to the Nancy (France) Forest School. Pinchot asked when the next train started for Nancy. He took that train. As a student of forestry he visited all the great forests of Europe. That was after he was graduated from Yale, after having prepared himself at Phillips Exeter. From the moment he entered the Forest School in France until now, he has followed his specialty.

The first example of practical forest management in the United States was started by him on the Vanderbilt estate at Biltmore, N. C. It came about through a magazine article on the subject which Mr. Pinchot had written and which attracted the attention of Mr. Vanderbilt, who then had some 100,000 acres in forests on his North Carolina estate. Next Mr. Pinchot had an office in New York as a consulting forester,—the first one of his profession in America.

In 1896, when Hoke Smith was Secretary of the Interior, he asked the National Academy of Sciences to report on a national forest policy for the forested lands of the United States. The Academy made Mr. Pinchot a member of the commission, and it was this commission which set the boundaries of the first forest "reserves,"—now national forests,—proclaimed by President Cleveland

in 1897. He afterward served as a special agent, and reported on all forest reserves.

During the Spanish-American War the Department of Agriculture started a little branch office, called "The Division of Forestry," of which Gifford Pinchot was made "chief." "The Division" boasted of eleven persons. Six of these were clerks and five were scientists. Two were "foresters." There was no field equipment. That was all there was to forestry in the United States at that time. There were not a dozen professional foresters in the whole country. Scarcely any one knew or cared anything about forestry. But Pinchot had ideas of his own. He began at once by offering practical assistance to forest owners. Thus immediately the field of action, as the Secretary of Agriculture said in one of his later reports, shifted from the desk to the woods. And there it has remained.

This has been Mr. Pinchot's idea all along. He has just finished a complete reorganization of the Forest Service, and as a result more than 400 persons who were in the Washington office have been distributed into six district headquarters in the field. Hereafter, whenever possible things are to be administered on the spot. Even in the present Washington office force there is a constant shifting from office to forest and back again that puts actual life and blood into everything, and brings into the Washington office an atmosphere breathing of forest, and mountain, stream, saddle, and camp.

The Spanish War having given us the Philippines, the President sent Mr. Pinchot to map out a forest policy for the islands. In 1905 the Government forest work, which had been divided between the Interior and the Agricultural Departments, was consolidated and put under the administration of the Forest Service. This change marked the beginning of a new era in the protection of the people's rights in the public domain. With the assembling of forest administration under one head, the fight for the public's right in the forests began.

Mr. Pinchot was a prominent member of

* A recent portrait of Mr. Pinchot forms the frontispiece of this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

the Public Lands Commission which President Roosevelt appointed in 1903, and which investigated the public lands thoroughly and submitted a general public lands policy. From this and the existing forest policy the development of a broader and more comprehensive plan was inevitable,—that is, a policy for the conservation of the country's natural resources. In his speech at Jamestown, Va., nearly two years ago, President Roosevelt reviewed these policies and added:

So much for what we are trying to do in utilizing our public lands for the public; in securing the use of the water, the forests, the coal, and the timber for the public. In all four movements my chief adviser, and the man first to suggest to me the process which has actually proved so beneficial, was Mr. Gifford Pinchot, the Chief of the National Forest Service. Mr. Pinchot also suggested to me a movement supplementary to all of these movements, one which will itself lead the way in the general movement which he represents and with which he is actively identified, for the conservation of all our natural resources. This was the appointment of the Inland Waterways Commission.

As chairman of the National Conservation Commission (which now includes the Inland Waterways Commission as one of its four sections), Mr. Pinchot is now the head of the great conservation movement, which embraces not only the preservation of our forests, but also a plan for the proper use and development of all our natural resources,—waters, forests, lands, and minerals. This is Mr. Pinchot's own idea, his chosen profession, his life's work. That may explain his enthusiasm, his hard work, and his willingness, if necessary, to fight for that which he believes to be right.

It is a fact, perhaps too well known, to need mention here that the friendship between Roosevelt and Pinchot is perhaps closer than any other friendship the President has. They play tennis together, take long walks together, chop trees together and, together, plan for the advancement of the great conservation movements which they represent.

The President's particular fondness for "Gifford," as he calls him, is well known. It is a personal friendship out of which a politician might make much. But no one ever knew of Mr. Pinchot trying to "play" it for the least personal advantage or selfish aggrandizement.

Mr. Pinchot occupies a unique position in the Government. Officially, he is the head of the Government Forest Service. And as

that service administers some 168,000,000 acres of national forests,—an area more than equal to that of the German Empire,—and employs some 2500 men, that in itself is a mighty big job. But Mr. Pinchot's usefulness stops not at that. With his wonderful genius for organization, and his able associate, Mr. Overton W. Price, he finds opportunity to devote himself to even larger duties. A man in close touch with official Washington declares that Gifford Pinchot has supplied as many ideas and practical working plans to the great "uplift" movement, personified by President Roosevelt, as any member of the President's cabinet,—if not more.

Mr. Pinchot in traits of character is a rare and admirable mixture. Modest as a girl, he is a fighter who knows not when to relent. The possessor of millions of dollars, he is in dress, custom, and manner, simplicity itself. With the bluest of blue blood, dating back to the Huguenots of France, he is a thorough democrat, showing no arrogance and despising display. Though having authority over an immense empire, Mr. Pinchot is cut off from no one or barred by no batteries of secretaries, no series of inner doors. There are no barriers about him such as are commonly found in Washington officialdom in cases where there is much less power and authority.

Yet, accessible as he is, he does his work with celerity and dispatch. There is no backing and filling. He sees the point instantly and decides at once. One of the men who knows him best said of him: "I attribute Gifford Pinchot's success to his readiness to act while the idea is hot." An idea once approved with him means instant action. Present a suggestion to him,—and one of the secrets of his success is that he courts the fullest possible suggestion from those about him,—and it is, "now, how can we do this?"

And the fact is, he is doing things,—big things. Secondly, he is doing them fairly and squarely. He is getting results, and those results are for the benefit and enjoyment of all the people. He is applying "common sense for the common good."

Call him dreamer if you will; he dreams for the welfare of the people. Say he is an enthusiast, but an enthusiast seeking to safeguard the people's rights. But never forget that when dealing with Gifford Pinchot you are face to face with an intensely practical, hardheaded, farsighted man to whom self-interest is never a consideration, to whom the right is always the controlling motive.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE PEACE MOVEMENT AND CIVILIZATION.

ELLEN KEY, the famous Swedish writer, contributes an exhaustive and appealing article to *Nord und Süd*, in which she shows by many cogent arguments the wickedness, the mad futility, of war, as well as the inevitable trend to a more rational and better state of international comity. We reproduce some of the salient points of her essay:

The majority of mankind, however, far, as yet, from making the desire for peace a measure of culture, regard it as a promoter of it. They still consider progress as being the material,—and, where possible, the spiritual,—ascendency of their own nation, and look upon the friends of peace as whining weaklings, open only to the appeals of sentiment, blind to the requirements of "historical necessity." The actual conditions that occasion war they maintain are an outcome of unalterable, elementary impulses, of racial, psychological, economic laws. The greatest cause of war remains what it always was: the need of a nation or race to spread, the need of bread, of a market,—in a word the impulse of expansion.

Powers that engage in war now do, to be sure, bear witness to the growing strength of the peace sentiment by not *openly* avowing it to be undertaken for their own interests, but in order to disseminate or protect civilization; just as equipments go on in order to,—secure universal peace.

Another cultural gain of war is claimed to be the selection of the most valuable elements for mankind; but who does not know that the most capable nations cannot hope to prevail against those stronger and richer? The older, often more interesting, civilization, is mercilessly sacrificed to mercantile interests; language, the chief instrument of culture, is suppressed when politically expedient; upon a like ground the conqueror destroys the processes of justice,—the basis of civilization. And if the violated nation defends its speech, its laws, its cultural gains, it is not termed patriotism, but,—rebellious separatism.

We all know, the Swedish writer continues, that the craving for bread and for power are elementary impulses; that the expansion idea is for the present an explosive force which no peace movement can destroy; that the crime of the strong against the right of the weak is at present a fact; that war is the last recourse to settle deep-seated differences.

But while all,—advocates of peace as well as war-patriots,—know that war under the given conditions is a natural necessity, the former believe that those conditions may be changed, while the latter maintain that they are unalterable. The prosperity of one people is still the decline of another. The fear of one that it will be robbed of its essentials of life by the other is to-day not an unfounded one. "Self-defense is the first law of nature,"—this applies to nations as well as individuals; but a citizen can worthily perform his duty to his country by defending it against injury or insult, and yet repel the chauvinist demands which seek to do violence to his conscience as a citizen of the world,—for example, if his own land has transgressed the law of nations, sinned against the international ideals of civilization.

True progress, Ellen Key maintains, consists in finding the point of union between one's own and other nations, where the welfare of one coincides with that of the others. "While the advocate of war boasts of martial memories, and inflames national and race hatred by all sorts of devices, the patriot of civilization pursues an exactly opposite course. And that is the course all women should follow!"

Real Trend of the World Nations.

The question whether there is actual danger of an approaching conflict between England and Germany is the occasion of a penetrating and very suggestive article,—appearing in the *Deutsche Revue*,—by Prince Lichnowsky, a member of the Prussian Upper House. In the course of it he pictures the basic tendency of the great nations, remarking that in politics isolated phases are to be differentiated from the general, fundamental strain.

In view of the dangers that threaten English rule in Asia on the part of Russia and Japan, as well as of the economic convulsion which would follow even a successful war with Germany,—England's best customers,—the Prince concludes that a conflict is not to be apprehended as imminent. Some of his arguments, particularly those regarding Great Britain's prospective relation to the Latin nations of Europe, are profoundly significant. He says in substance:

Germany's relations with England have for a number of years formed the most important part of her foreign policy. A war with France,

—necessarily based upon the aid of Russia,—was rendered improbable since the death of Alexander III., and Russia's reverses in the East, while the evidently weak martial equipment and the internal dissensions of the latter almost precluded the idea of her attacking the strongest military power of the Continent. The less the danger from these two sides, the more prominent became the question whether a naval war with the greatest fleet of the world was to be looked for. What could Germany's weak sea equipment accomplish as opposed to England's tenfold greater strength? What would she have to defend against the latter, bound as the two peoples are by ties of blood, admiring it as she does in so many ways? But experience has taught that the growing British ill-humor must be reckoned with; that the increase of the German fleet, of its commerce, its colonial strength, occasion displeasure in England, and that discussions and preparations for war are proceeding there; furthermore, that England's ruler and ministers are intent upon getting in close touch with most of the powers, while evincing but a weak desire in that direction as regards Germany. In spite of friendly visits and speeches an anxious feeling that a complication with a superior opponent is impending cannot be dissipated. The point that ever anew occupies both nations is the uncertainty whether one is arming against the other.

England's relations with the Latin countries of Europe, and particularly with France, may be noted, says this writer.

The old animosity between the two nations naturally paled when France passed her zenith as a world-power. From foe and rival she became with time a confederate,—according to the old, oft-proved principle in politics of making a friend and protégé of a nation no longer to be feared. And the French will naturally

always espouse the side of the strongest opponents of Germany. Their readiness to meet the wishes of England in colonial questions was evidenced in Egypt. This circumstance suggests the thought that in the course of centuries a similar process may take place in the French colonies. *England is on the point of assuming an attitude of protection to the Latin states of Europe similar to that of the United States to the Latin states of America.* Italy's bent is to seek England's support, and Portugal, the weakest politically, points the way that the other Latin nations must,—though it may be in varying measure,—eventually follow. Gazing, then, into the politics of the future, we must reckon first with the English group, to which the Latin states of Europe will belong, the African colonial possessions, and, it may be, the future independent republics of Australia; second, the German, with which may be reckoned Austria and Hungary, perhaps also Holland and a portion of the Orient and of Africa; third, the Russian, with the greater part of Asia, excepting China proper and both Indies; fourth, the Japanese, which includes the islands of the Pacific, China proper, and the Indies; and, finally, the American group, which, under the leadership of the United States, embraces the whole Continent.

The Prince concludes with the belief that the English will realize that they would lose more than they could gain by a war with Germany, adding that there is ample room for both nations in Africa and on the broad seas. German foreign policy, he remarks, should guard against exaggerations, which arouse English mistrust and annoyance, as well as against stinging remarks, which have the effect of "disturbing the habitual English complacence."

WILL THE ANGLO-SAXON STOCK SURVIVE IN AMERICA?

AMERICAN immigration is a unique phenomenon in the world's history; and the remarkable fact in connection with it is that the people of the United States have become so accustomed to the ever-increasing influx of denizens of the Old World that they are apt to lose sight of the tremendous possibilities which so large a foreign element involves. It is estimated that since 1820 about 25,000,000 Europeans have come to America; and concerning this enormous army of immigrants much food for reflection is supplied in an article by Mr. William Z. Ripley in the *Atlantic Monthly* for December. He says:

Wave has followed wave, each higher than the last. . . . Since 1900 over 6,000,000 people have landed on our shores. . . . The newcomers, if properly disseminated over the

newer parts of the country, would serve to populate no less than nineteen States of the Union. . . . They could, if properly seated in the land, elect thirty-eight out of the present ninety-two Senators of the United States. Is it any wonder that thoughtful political students stand somewhataghast?

Along with the great increase in immigration has come a remarkable change in its character. Whereas in 1876 only 20,000 Italians landed on the western shores of the Atlantic, no fewer than 300,000 arrived in the year 1907. In the decade 1860-1870 the British Isles, Germany, Scandinavia, and Canada supplied 90 per cent. of our immigrants: in 1890-1900 only 41.8 per cent. But Austria-Hungary, Italy, and Russia, which in 1860-1870 sent only 1 per cent., in 1907 contributed about 900,000. Classifying the immigration to America in 1907, according

to race groups, Mr. Ripley finds the result to be as follows:

Alpine race.....	194,000 (one-sixth).
Jewish race.....	146,000 (mainly Russian, one-eighth).
Mediterranean race.....	330,000 (one-quarter).
Slavic race.....	330,000 (one-quarter).
Teutonic race.....	194,000 (one-sixth).

Some of the statistics in Mr. Ripley's paper are as startling as they are interesting.

In one block in New York there are 1400 people of twenty distinct nationalities. There are more than two-thirds as many native-born Irish in Boston as in the capital city, Dublin. With their children, mainly of pure Irish blood, they make Boston the leading Irish city in the world. New York is a larger Italian city to-day than Rome, having 500,000 Italian colonists. It contains no less than 800,000 Jews, mainly from Russia. Thus it is also the foremost Jewish city in the world. Pittsburg is said to contain more of that out-of-the-way people, the Servians, than the capital of Servia itself.

With all this ethnic diversity in the population the question is whether these racial groups will continue their separate existences or will coalesce to form ultimately a more or less uniform American type.

Will the progress of time bring about intermixture of these diverse types or will they remain separate, distinct, and perhaps discordant elements for an indefinite period, like the warring nationalities of Austria-Hungary and the Balkan States?

Among the factors tending to favor intermixture are the extreme and ever-increasing mobility of our American population and the ever-present inequality of the sexes among the foreigners. In 1905 Russia sent 50,000 womenfolk,—more than the number from England, Germany, and Sweden combined,—and Austria-Hungary transplanted hither 78,000, or three times as many as came from England, Ireland, and Germany. On the other hand, among the Italians the proportion of men to women, formerly six to one, is still three to one. What, asks Mr. Ripley, are these men to do for wives? They may write home or go home and find brides among their own people, or they may seek wives in America. This probably the majority do.

Of the influences tending to hinder ethnic intermixture the most important is the effect of segregation of the immigrants in compact colonies. The Mediterranean, Slavic, and Oriental peoples "heap up in the great cities."

Literally four-fifths of all our foreign-born citizens now abide in the twelve principal cities of the country, which are mainly in the East." This concentration

tends to promote the conservation of the purity of racial stocks. Again, barriers to intermarriage are often based upon differences in economic status.

The Italian "Dago" is looked down upon by the Irish, as in turn the Irishman used to be characterized by the Americans as a "Mick," or "Paddy." Any such social distinctions constitute serious handicaps in the matrimonial race.

Racial intermixture, to a greater or less extent, being inevitable, is the result likely to be a superior or an inferior type? "Will the American of 200 years hence be better or worse, as a physical being, because of his mongrel origin?" Mr. Ripley states that evidence to support both sides is to be had for the seeking.

A very important factor in the solution of the question is the birth-rate. Benjamin Franklin estimated six children to a normal American family in his day. At the present time the average is slightly above two. The rate of reproduction of the foreigners after their arrival in the United States and their "surprisingly sustained tenacity of life" greatly exceed those of the native-born American. In Massachusetts, for instance, the birth-rate among the foreign-born is three times that of the native-born. "Even among the Irish the fruitfulness of the women is 50 per cent. greater than for the Massachusetts native-born."

The contest for supremacy between the Anglo-Saxon stock and its rivals in America may be stated in another way.

Whereas, only about one-ninth of the married women among the French-Canadians, Irish, and Germans are childless, the proportion among the American-born and the English-Canadians is as high as one in five. A century ago about 2 per cent. of barren marriages was the rule. Is it any wonder that serious students contemplate the racial future of Anglo-Saxon America with some concern? They have seen the passing of the American Indian and the buffalo; and now they query as to how long the Anglo-Saxon may be able to survive.

On the other hand, evidence is not lacking to show that in the second generation of these immigrant peoples a sharp and considerable, nay in some cases a truly alarming, decrease in fruitfulness occurs. The crucial time among all our newcomers from Europe has always been in this second generation. The old customary ties and usages have been abruptly sundered, and new associations, restraints, and responsibilities have not yet been formed. . . . In some communities the Irish-Americans have a lower birth-rate even than the native-born. Dr. Engelmann, on the basis of a large practice, has shown that among the St. Louis Germans the proportion of barren marriages is almost unprecedentedly high.

AMERICAN ENERGY, AS SEEN BY A FRENCHMAN.

TO see ourselves as others see us is invariably instructive, if not always productive of pleasurable feelings. More often than not our transatlantic critics are apt to be somewhat blind to such good qualities as we may possess; at the same time they evince a remarkably acute perception in discovering our little weaknesses. All the more agreeable, therefore, is it to read an article like that on "l'Energie Americaine," by M. Firmin Roz, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. Here there is no superficial handling of the subject, no presentation of "impressions" gained during a tour of a few weeks in the country whose people the writer seeks to describe. On the contrary, M. Roz treats his theme exhaustively, going back to the landing of the Pilgrim Fathers, and laying under contribution more than a score of writers, including such prominent authors as Paul Bourget, J. Huret, Félix Klein, Paul Adam, and Th. Bentzon. What first strikes all observers, he says, in the character of the American of the United States is his hardy activity, his appetite for action, and his *élan*. These qualities, he considers, are in great measure an inheritance from the first settlers.

The Puritans of Yorkshire disembarked on a land that offered them nothing, but promised everything. It invited to labor; and the pioneer had only to advance in order to conquer. Property spread out before him, unbounded, free, and offered to his simple effort. And the development of industry, the progress of steam and electricity, and the discovery of mines resulted in a tenfold expansion of energy, initiative, and daring. An unexploited world awaited the hand and mind of man; and man responded to this appeal.

There was no burdensome legacy from the past to hamper the free hands of the workers: their effort turned spontaneously toward the future. Action was concentrated toward a single end,—the production of wealth. This was a primordial condition of life before it became an ambition. Whereas other peoples have expended their energies in safeguarding their frontiers from enemies or rivals and in realizing their dreams of military glory, the colonists of New England and the citizens of the young Republic devoted themselves solely to economic development and to "the most intense labor." The latter characteristic, says M. Roz, continues to the present time. "It stamps each individual with its imprint, and thus reduces to uniformity the continually increasing diversity

of races and peoples thrown by immigration on the shores of the Western Hemisphere.

Physical energy of effort, says this writer, dominates the entire psychology of the American.

Pioneers, trappers of the North, cowboys of the Western solitudes, seekers for gold, soldiers of fortune,—all subsist by this force of energy. This initial necessity has never changed. One finds it even among the kings of industry, of railroads, and of finance.

Initiative is one of the fundamental traits of the American character. The most curious evidence of this, M. Roz thinks, is the disinclination manifested by the average American for the "ready-made careers." Another American characteristic is the love of risk. "It is not enough to say that the American is not afraid of it: he loves it. It is a condition indispensable to his success. Risk has for him the attraction of an adventure. The American despairs ruin as heroes disdain death." But the one thing concerning which this French writer is most enthusiastic is the way Americans work.

For, before all, this community works. Here one sees labor intense and marvelous. Transported to the New World and directed by enterprise, science has here been deliberately put to its practical work, which is not to govern life, but to serve it, to increase its means without philosophizing as to its ends. . . . It has furnished man with an incomparable material which assures to him victory in all contingencies. America has become an immense workshop wherein labor unceasingly perfects its instruments and its products. . . . All efforts are directed toward one immediate end: to produce more quickly, more cheaply, and better. And the results achieved have been astonishing.

Referring to the need of perpetual effort in regard to organization and adaptation, in consequence of the diversity of elements of which American society is composed, M. Roz claims that the three principal factors in this connection are religion, education, and "social action." He cites the observation of M. Henry Barby: "The moral unity of the American nation is a religious and a Christian unity. Profoundly religious, it gives to all denominations absolute liberty." The remarkable progress of Roman Catholicism in the United States is due to "its intimate harmony with the national spirit." As regards education it has merely an utilitarian end.

The young American seeks instruction not from any love of science, but because to-day science signifies for him dollars and fortune. . . . There are schools for everything; for all the sciences, all the arts, all the handicrafts,

in fact, for every need. M. Jules Huret assures us that in the city of Boston alone there are more than 600, where one may learn anything from cookery to musical journalism. And he adds: "Employment is guaranteed in the last-mentioned field, for there is a continually increasing demand for musical critics in all the cities of the United States (!)."

Under the heading of "social action," M. Roz pays a high tribute to the work done in America in the fields of Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations and of settlements like Hull House in Chicago.

WHEN PUBLICITY PLAYS DETECTIVE ON MUNICIPAL DISHONESTY.

EACH succeeding census of the United States establishes a noteworthy tendency on the part of the American people,—namely, that of congregating in the cities. In the first year of the last century the population of the United States was 5,308,483, and Baltimore, Boston, Charleston, New York, and Philadelphia were the only cities with more than 10,000 inhabitants. In 1900 the total population was 76,303,387, and there were no fewer than 545 towns with 8000 or more inhabitants, the percentage of the whole being 32.75, as against 3.24 in 1800. As this tendency to herd in cities is evidently destined to increase rather than to diminish, the problem of city administration will soon concern more than half of the people of the United States, writes Mr. Raymond L. Bridgman in the *Atlantic Monthly* for December; and he also puts forward the assumption that, besides being the greatest problem of the times, municipal government is the greatest political evil in the United States. This observation is apropos of a study of a new application of statistics "which has brought fresh promise of success to the reformers of municipal governments," and whose potency lies in the application of percentage of results to expense in the different cities, whereby comparison between different departments becomes possible, down to small details.

It has come in local form, but the idea is national; and it is a fair presumption that the idea will speedily have national standing. Its local application has manifested itself in two States only,—Ohio and Massachusetts. . . . The only report published by Massachusetts is presented in such admirable form that it is in itself a most encouraging promise that a large measure of reform in municipal management will be attained through the comparisons of percentages of expenditures to results obtained.

The report in question is issued by the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor, of which Mr. Charles F. Gettemy is chief, and is entitled "The Cost of Municipal

Government in Massachusetts." It is thus characterized by Mr. Bridgman:

This is the first report of the sort ever published in this country, perhaps in the world, and it is of such a pioneer character as to make it appear as if it must, by the very force of its method and application to municipal problems, be followed in all its essential characteristics by every other State in the Union, especially by all those with one or more large cities.

The Massachusetts law under which the report was produced was passed in 1906. It requires each city and town to furnish annually to the Chief of the Bureau of Statistics of Labor

a return containing a summarized statement of all revenues and all expenses for the last fiscal year of that town or city; a detailed statement of all receipts and disbursements of the last fiscal year, arranged upon uniform schedules prepared by the Chief of the Bureau of Statistics of Labor; statements of the income and expense of each public industry maintained or operated by such city or town; a statement of the public debt of said city or town, showing the purpose for which each item of the debt was created and the provisions made for the payment thereof; and a statement of all current assets and all current liabilities of such city or town at the close of its fiscal year.

The importance of this statistical work to the welfare of the cities will be apparent. Chief Gettemy himself states that formerly "there was no uniformity in the classification of the Massachusetts accounts, and in many cases no bookkeeping worthy of the name." It was simply impossible for any student of municipal finance, confronted with the utter chaos that existed, to make any comparisons of a selected number of cities. What the average citizen wants to know, and what he is entitled to know, is how the percentage of expense in the different departments compares with that of similar departments in other cities. The report under notice not only gives this information, but it also shows the percentage division of expenses between the municipal departments themselves, under the respective heads of

general administration, police, fire, public health, charities, and so on. There are thirty-three cities in the State of Massachusetts, and the average for all of the thirty-three is given, as well as the items severally for every city by itself.

The advantages of this system of comparisons by percentages are obvious.

It is now so easy to check up the work of any mayor, board of aldermen, street commissioner, or any other official who has a responsible position, that the average citizen can see easily and intelligently what the situation is. . . . The official or department can be compared with his or its own past. . . . If the administration is honest . . . then it gets credit in a way which has not been possible hitherto. If here is a c'ty department which stands No. 1 of all the cities of the United States, the man who has made the record possible will get credit for his ability and honesty.

On the other hand, this publicity resulting from the comparisons of percentages *will play the detective upon every dishonest and inefficient department head.* Where the spoils system is in full sway, dishonesty will

be exposed; revolt on the part of the citizens is sure to come, and the dishonest official will be driven from office. "The light of publicity will shine about every department as it has not hitherto done"; publicity will have the effect of making officials feel more responsible; and honorable pride will be stimulated by the certainty that if the official does well the fact will be duly advertised to his fellow citizens. Another result is inevitable: public intelligence in public affairs will be raised, with a corresponding elevation of the efficiency of the service.

The readers of Mr. Bridgman's article are reminded that all this advance does not concern the scheme of government at all.

It does not involve any charter amendments. . . . It has nothing to do with the suffrage, with systems of balloting, or any phase o' the election law. . . . It is simply a system of reducing finances to a form suitable for comparison, and letting the system do its perfect work. . . . But it must not be forgotten that it takes men to reform. Figures will never do it of themselves.

"THE UNCHANGING ENGLISH,"—A FRENCH OPINION.

IN a remarkable article in the *Revue pour les Français*, Baron Pierre de Coubertin declares that England is immutably stable, despite occasional appearances to the contrary. The Socialists at Westminster, the treaties with Japan, and understandings and agreements with other powers, have made no impression on the fundamental insularism which rules Great Britain's foreign policy. To quote his words:

We are passing through one of the periods when England carries on work beyond her boundaries. She has always worked in the same way. The centuries have seen her, first exercising her activity on something beyond her frontiers, then falling back upon herself to watch and await results. Her desire, like the instinct which impels her to exterior action, is controlled by her determination to guard the absolute independence, which is the marrow in the bone of the British political system. Great Britain's internal policy is composed of three elements: First, the two parties,—Conservative and Liberals; second, the monarchy; third, the radicalism, which is always a surprise to the foreigner. The virulence of the radicals is of little more effect than to give savor to the English life. Twenty-two years ago an astonishingly passionate demand was made for the suppression of the House of Lords. That body stands where it stood then, the only difference being additional

strength, gained during its returns to the public favor.

England's ideas do not progress, continues Baron Coubertin, nor do they stand still. They are in incessant action, "but their motion is circular, they revolve and, as a result of their revolution, return to the starting point."

Morally, England falls back upon herself; for that reason, if for no other, she will always be an independent force, however she may be assailed by foreign foes or by schisms. As far as the peace of the nation goes, radicalism cuts no figure. The bold plans and the land talks of the radicals do nothing but add color to the picturesque.

All that England is to-day, all that she is to be in time to come, this writer maintains, is contained in the schools, as the oaken timbers of the ship are contained in the acorn.

The foreign mind regards the great colleges of Oxford, Cambridge, and the rest, as the schools of England; but to hold that opinion is to err, because the universities do not represent the nation. Their influence is limited to the higher of the classes. They are venerable,—those splendid temples of learning; we revere them as the glorious legacy left by the past; yet should they disappear to-morrow, England would find that they have had but little to do with the formation of her public mind. But to lose the public school would be to lose a factor of the national power and change the character

of England. The English themselves do not know all that the public schools mean to them, nor does any one recognize the colossal strength of their influence, past and present. Their action is direct and indirect,—direct, on them who attend them; indirect, on the private schools. The public schools force the private schools to maintain an appearance of the effort and the excellence of public schools. The public school is a living organism; a society which, though held within narrow boundaries, embraces all forms of the active and reactive collectivities of civilized society at large. Never, in any country, has pedagogy possessed a more finely finished or more smoothly-running system than we find in the English schools. . . . The school teaches the English lads the lesson of life; to be a man and to rule his conduct by the high law of the citizen's duty to himself and to his fellow-citizens.

The general idea of the English school, says this French writer, is to stand firm; and to teach the child to stand firm, to stand his

ground, is the chief business of the schools. "The work of the schools is,—why not say it frankly,—to form the Englishman's ideal; the gentleman. In this England has never changed."

The national mind of England, Baron Coubertin maintains further, is changeless. "This is a great fact, a marvelous fact; it is doubtful if any country but England could produce its like."

The French, the Germans, the Americans, the Russians,—all have changed. The English have not changed, nor have they shown any of the symptoms of change. If now and then, here or there, London gives us the impression of something new, even as we gaze, it assumes the always strong and durable, though vague and indefinable aspect of England; and by that we know that it is English. Such is the English mind in the year of Grace, 1908.

THE VERDI "RETREAT" FOR OLD MUSICIANS.

A GRAPHIC description of the Retreat for Old Musicians, in Milan, founded by Giuseppe Verdi, is given in a recent issue of *Hojas Selectas*, the illustrated Spanish monthly of Barcelona. Within this building repose the remains of Verdi and those of his wife, Josephina Strapponi. Certainly a nobler monument was never erected. After entering the edifice, which is built in the Venetian style, the first rooms the visitor is shown are those constituting the Museo Verdiano. Here are gathered together many mementoes of the life and work of the great composer, such as the rude harpsichord on which, as a child, he made his first timid essays at composition; the Viennese *cimbalo* used by him in his youth; the grand piano upon which he composed his "Othello"; manuscripts of his operas, and fine busts of the composer and his wife, by Vincenzo Gemito. The room in which Verdi died was transported intact from his home, and its contents have been preserved unchanged.

The central court gives entrance to the upper story, where dwell the aged musicians. The founder left 75,000 lire (\$15,000) in government bonds as an endowment for the institution and, in addition to this, the product of the royalties on his works, under the condition that the management of the Retreat shall only expend the sum of 50,000 lire annually from this latter source during the first ten years, so that, from the remainder of the revenue, a capital might be accumu-

lated to increase the endowment of the foundation. Because of this restriction, which endures until 1912, the Retreat shelters only thirty-six men and seventeen women at the present time.

The right wing of the building is assigned to the men and the left to the women, and there is no intercourse between the sexes in the interior of the institution. The inmates assemble in their respective refectories, each of which is supplied with a piano, so that, by evoking their favorite melodies, they may have recreation during the long winter evenings. Each wing ends in pleasant gardens, bounded by terraces, whence the plains of Lombardy can be discerned in the distance.

In this way these musicians and lyric artists, whom old age has robbed of the means of subsistence, tranquilly pass the last days of their existence.

The idea of their approaching end sometimes casts a shade over the faces and dims the eyes of these poor old people, for whom life has again become endurable. On the lower floor there is a room, only opened three or four times during the year. Black funeral cloths, fringed with gold, hang from its walls; in the center rises a sumptuous catafalque. One after the other those who lead the way along the pathway of death will come to rest upon this, and the survivors will chant the funeral hymns with timid and tremulous voice.

On such occasions the idea that their time may come to-morrow, in the ceaseless election of death, takes stronger hold of the survivors. Theirs is the tranquil but incurable sadness of those who have reached the evening of life and dread the eternal night.

WHAT THE UNITED STATES NAVY OWES TO PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT.

WHEN the Presidency of Theodore Roosevelt comes to be critically analyzed by the historians of the future there can be little doubt that their unanimous opinion will be that one of the greatest services rendered by him to his country was the development of the navy, which rendered possible the remarkable cruise of sixteen battleships, a convincing evidence that the United States had entered the rank of world-powers. Now that this cruise is practically a *fait accompli*, it is amusing to recall the prognostications of "trouble" abroad and the hostile criticisms of the President to which it gave rise. And perhaps the most noteworthy outcome of the whole voyage was the setback which the prophets of evil received in the fact that the particular nation whose ire the advent of the American fleet in Pacific waters was certain to rouse was the very one whose welcome to the officers and men of the United States Navy was such as to fairly stagger them by reason of the magnificence of its hospitality. The cruise itself was really the successful issue of the President's labors in naval reform.

The American public knows President Roosevelt as an advocate of a greater navy, writes Mr. Henry Reuterdahl in *Pearson's* for December, but few know the amount of attention and thoughtful study that he has given to the navy and its affairs; how earnestly he has worked to make the sea forces of the United States efficient; how he has endeavored to improve the organization of the Navy Department so that the navy will be at all times prepared for war.

There are no votes in the navy; but he has been fighting for an adequate navy because he believes it is right to do so,—fighting for it as he would have fought for the Union or the abolition of slavery had he lived at that time. The President believes that there should be more interest in the actual state of the navy as a fighting force, and he has made it plain that he desires that the navy should be known intimately by our people and that they should take as intelligent an interest in our navy as the British do in theirs. . . . He believes that it is the absolute duty of Congress to provide for the maintenance of a strong naval defense. . . . In order to do so we must advocate more and better ships. . . . Our national honor and whole being depend upon the existence of a powerful navy. With a fleet of ships in each ocean and with the Panama Canal completed the country can look forward to years of peace and prosperity.



HENRY REUTERDAHL.

(The artist and correspondent who has been criticizing navy equipment and management.)

It is now nearly twelve years since Mr. Roosevelt became Assistant Secretary of the Navy. Having been a profound student of naval affairs, he brought with him to the department "a full understanding of the meaning of preparedness as an element of sea power."

He came to his desk like a whirlwind: he was there to work and not to play the politician. . . . Mr. Roosevelt's dynamic energy opened up the labyrinth of red tape and he shook off the lethargy of tradition and routine. He said: "I am trying to devise a system by which, if a captain of a ship which was tied to a navy-yard dock saw a coil of rope on the dock and wanted it, he could get that coil of rope without going through an endless mass of red tape. Under the present system the captain would have to write to the commandant of the yard, who would send his letter with his endorsement through the proper officer of the yard to the Assistant Secretary, who would refer it to the proper bureau of the Navy Department, whose chief would refer it to the commandant of the yard, who would again send it back to the captain of the ship, who would then be able, on proper application through his executive officer, to get that coil of rope ten feet away from where his ship lay. What I am trying to do is to work out a scheme by which the captain of that ship could get that rope without all that red tape."

Red tape and office routine have not been

the only obstacles against which the President has had to fight in his efforts for navy reform. He has had to overcome opposition on the part of certain overcautious navy officials and "resistance on the part of legislators who are disposed to exploit the navy for their own and their constituents' selfish ends." The President strongly believes that the navy can only be made better by changing the present administration of the Navy Department. He says:

I have from time to time recommended the reorganization of the Navy Department; it is absolutely necessary, and we will work and work until we get it, and we shall get it.

The President may be fitly described as the apostle of preparedness and straight shooting. In 1900, says Mr. Reuterdahl, "a well-informed officer reported that 'the navy has never been in a relatively more inefficient condition.'" The United States Navy Department has no policy determining the program of shipbuilding, as is the case with the naval bureaus of other nations. The ram *Katahdin* is "now a million dollars' worth of scrap iron." The *Charleston*, *St. Louis*, and *Milwaukee*, cruisers, "are the evidences of ill-spent money. They cannot fight, and they are too slow for scouting." Each cost about \$3,000,000. The battleships *Idaho* and *Mississippi*, which cost another \$10,000,000, "are slower than the rest of the fleet." Lieutenant Sims, reporting on the defects of the *Kentucky*, described her as "a slaughter-pen with unprotected guns and open turrets." These are some of the elements of unpreparedness for war which have convinced the President that "the navy possesses no real fighting power." In his annual message of 1906 he said: "It was a waste of money to build the modern single-turret monitors." On the recent cruise each officer was required to report upon the characteristics of his own ship.

The final report was signed by Rear-Admiral Evans. The freeboard was declared too low, the guns were too near the water, the position of the armor belt was questioned. The torpedo defense was found inadequate, the ammunition hoists were too slow, and the open turret was condemned. The broadside guns would be unable to fire even in ordinary trade-wind weather. It was a severe arraignment. The judgment came from the men who have to handle the ships in battle.

In the summer of 1908 Commander Key called the attention of the Secretary of the Navy to defects in the battleships *North Dakota* and *Delaware*, under construction. His letter was "considered disrespectful and

insubordinate; it was pigeonholed and not acknowledged."

This came to President Roosevelt's ears. Again he did the unusual and unprecedented, and took the matter out of the hands of the Navy Department. He at once ordered a board of officers to meet in conference to investigate the truth of the charges and recommend what changes could be made in the construction of these ships. . . . The conference substantiated practically all criticisms made by Commander Key.

But it is in the matter of straight shooting that the President has worked a complete reform in the navy. The father of modern gunnery, as Mr. Reuterdahl reminds us, was Captain Percy Scott of the British cruiser *Terrible*, whose ship in 1901 established the world's record,—100 per cent.,—for accuracy, making eight hits in a minute with a six-inch gun. Only actual holes in the target counted as hits. Lieutenant Sims formed a friendship with Scott on the China station. He was allowed to witness the British practice, and he gathered full details of the system. At that time the American gunners were firing at imaginary targets and making one hit as against six of the British.

Worse than that, the *New York* fired during an "efficiency practice" 428 shots and made eight hits. . . . Sims pointed out that "upon our naval gunnery depends the existence of the nation," and he pictured what the outcome would be should we fail to improve our shooting. His earnest appeals landed in the official pigeonholes of the Navy Department, where they were buried or suppressed. This was in 1901-'02. . . . But the Navy Department continued its policy of doing nothing. . . . Sims as a last resort appealed directly to President Roosevelt. He ordered Sims' reports to be printed and distributed to all the ships in the service. Furthermore, an official test was made and five battleships of the North Atlantic fleet were sent to sea for target practice. Shooting at a condemned lightship with the fleet firing all their broadsides resulted in three hits. These three hits represented the fighting efficiency of five of our battleships which had cost the country \$30,000,000. In 1901 the British cruiser *Terrible* had all alone hit the target 114 times.

President Roosevelt soon saw that something had to be done. Overriding criticism by the bureaus, he made Sims inspector of target practice. He also established prizes, and the gun pointers received extra pay on becoming expert. "Target practice was transformed into a sport, and a gun crew into a football team. The effect was instantaneous; the officers and men tackled the new system with vim and enthusiasm." As a result, one year after the lightship affair 50 per cent. of hits were obtained in the first practice.

Sims had for two years recommended improved gunsights, which the bureau system had persistently rejected. The President again intervened. He ordered that all guns should be fitted with new sights. The change required three years and cost "hundreds of thousands of dollars." But the money was well expended. At 6000 yards and over "many of our turret guns have made over 50 per cent. of hits at targets 30 by 60." In 1905 the *Wisconsin* "fired with her thirteen-inch guns eighty-eight shots, and made eighty-eight hits at 1600 yards. The American gun pointer is now without a peer."

Mr. Reuterdahl's article is a pretty severe arraignment of the bureau system, and it is difficult to see how the detailed charges of inefficiency which he offers can be disproved. But there is ample testimony to the fact that the nation owes a mighty big debt to the President.

By intelligently using the "big stick," overcoming the inertia and resistance of the bureau system, President Roosevelt has increased our naval preparedness and established a new era. In a few months he will be out of the White House, but the standard that he has set must be maintained. Retrogression should not be permitted.

WAS PARADISE AT THE NORTH POLE?

THE cradle of the human race has always been a favorite subject of inquiry, both scientific and non-scientific; and speculation has run riot in attempts to locate the Garden of Eden. In our own day scholars and trained theologians like Cheyne ("Traditions and Beliefs of Ancient Israel"), Friedrich Delitsch ("Wo lag das Paradies?"), Gunkel ("Die Paradieserzählung"), St. Clair ("The Garden of Eden"), and others have propounded new locations for Eden almost solely on the ground of new conjectural identifications of the four rivers of the Paradise described in Genesis. The sites proposed are widely distant from one another and include Jerusalem, Somaliland in Africa, a place in the German Rhineland, and the Scilly Islands. In an interesting article on the recent literature on this subject in the *Methodist Review* for November-December, Dr. William F. Warren wisely remarks that the discovery "of the unknown country in which our race originally took its place among the living tenantry of the earth" must be by proper scientific methods.

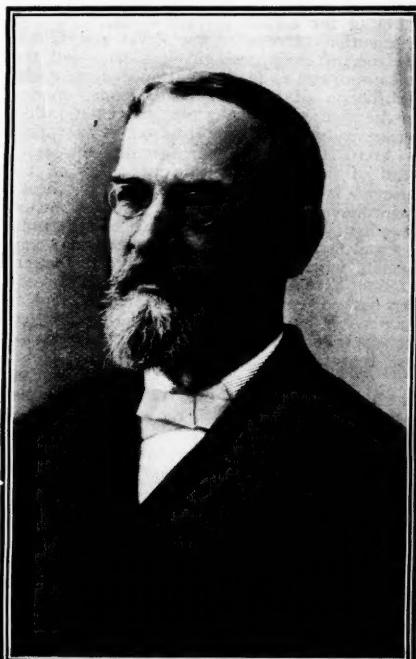
To students of language, of early arts, of social institutions, civilization, government, religion, no less than to the anthropologist, a knowledge of the true starting-point of the development about to be studied by them is a desideratum comparable to no other.

The fact is that a comprehensive treatment of the problem,—a treatment in which all the lines of evidence entitled to a hearing are taken into account,—is extremely rare.

Trained scientists and untrained writers in scientific lines have often taken the data of some one field of nature-knowledge and have therefrom attempted to show where the cradleland of our race must have been. Thus one has used facts of geography only, another the teaching of

the biology of his day, another the views of contemporary paleontologists, another the facts of early language history, racial characteristics, ethnic relationships, and so on.

It is in this way that hypotheses have been advanced according to which the human species originated in Equatorial Africa, in Aus-



REV. WILLIAM F. WARREN, D.D.

(Leading exponent of the theory of the polar cradle of the human race.)

tralia, in Southern Asia, and "possibly" at the poles,—the blacks at the southern and the whites at the northern. But "by no such narrow procedures as these is this problem of problems ever to be solved."

Twenty-four years ago Dr. Warren himself published a more comprehensive treatment of the subject than had ever before been attempted; and his work, entitled "Paradise Found: The Cradle of the Human Race at the North Pole," has since gone through eleven editions.

The conclusion reached was that the primeval homeland of our race was a,—later submerged,—circumpolar continent within the Arctic Circle. Some of the lines of evidence then presented were as follows: First, the overwhelming majority of Biblical scholars have openly and definitely abandoned the idea that the problem can ever be settled by any imaginable interpretation to be put upon the Garden of Eden narrative in Genesis. Second, the earliest habitable portions of the slowly cooling and gradually solidifying globe must have been the circumpolar. Third, at one stage in the secular cooling of the earth-mass the biological conditions in the circumpolar regions must have been more favorable to the origination of the floral and faunal life-forms than any existing on any portion of the earth's surface to-day. Fourth, the scientific surveys of the floral and faunal life-forms of early geologic ages have led the chief authorities to the conclusion that the earliest diffusion of vegetable and animal species over the earth proceeded from one center rather than from two, and that this one was within the Arctic Circle. . . . Seventh, the early spread of shipless paleolithic men over all the continents is more easily explained on the theory of a primeval Arctic point of departure than on any other yet propounded. Eighth, the traditions and mythologies of the oldest nations contain data which are incapable of credible interpretation except as faint memories of a time when far-off ancestors lived in a circumpolar region. . . . No reviewer of the treatise has ever disproved, or even challenged, any one of these representations of the "pertinent facts." . . . Years have passed, but the writer has felt no misgiving as to the outcome of the discussion. Had it been otherwise, treatises well adapted to dissipate every doubt were every now and then appearing. With amazing erudition, in a work of more than a thousand pages, John O'Neill set forth the circumpolar, and indeed the Arctic, standpoint of every early mythology. Independently of him, a native Sanskrit scholar of India, Tilak, in a work translated and reproduced three years later in Germany, next claimed that the earliest Vedic hymns were composed in the lands of "the Midnight Sun," and that the far-off ancestors of the Hindus must have come from those lands. With even stronger evidence from the Avestan literature he substantiated the like claim of a high north origin for the Iranian stock. Independently of him, a constantly growing line of investigators,—successors to Latham and Schrader and Penka,—have in successive treatises made it more and more difficult to doubt

that the Arctic region was the cradleland of all the Indo-Germanic peoples. Meantime paleontologists and anthropologists of every school have been accumulating fresh facts, and men of the standing of Kriz, Moritz Wagner, Haacke, Rawitz, Wilser, in Germany; and Scribner, Wortman, Dolbear, and Wieland, in America, are from year to year renewedly directing the gaze of all searchers for origins, animal or human, to "Arctogaea," the zoögraphic zone whose zenith is the polar star.

It is worth noting that as early as 1844 Count Björnstjerna, of Sweden, in his "Theogony of the Hindoos," had remarked: "It is possible that the appearance of man took place at the same time in both regions [the two poles]; perhaps the white race in the countries about the North Pole, and the black race in those about the South Pole."

Dr. Warren calls attention to the wide prevalence in ancient thought of two parades, one on the earth and the other in the heavens; usually connected by a "bridge," "ladder," or "pillar." This medium of intercommunication was in every instance "coincident in position with the upright axis of the heavens and earth." Moreover, in the ancient Babylonian conception of the world the polar summit of the earth reached to the floor of the second heaven. Egyptologists, too, hold that in the mythology of the Nile Valley the heavenly On, the throne-city of the sun, was at the north pole of the heavens. Dr. Warren's theory is not without support among modern scientists. Our own anthropologist, W J McGee, maintains that "it is now more certain than two decades ago that men existed in Tertiary times." Mr. Samuel Waddington, a distinguished member of the Anthropological Institute of Great Britain, holds that "the evidence clearly shows that our ancestors were in North America during the later portion of the Tertiary epoch, and that they came there from or by the Arctic regions, Bering Straits, or Greenland." And Mr. Edward Clodd, in his "Story of Creation," unhesitatingly declares: "It is therefore to the North Pole . . . that all evidence points as the area of the origin and distribution of life." The trend of recent literature on the subject seems unmistakably to be toward the conclusion that "the cradleland of the animal kingdom was within the Arctic Circle"; and, as Mr. G. Hilton Scribner suggests, "the *homo sapiens* may have reached his human stage after his animal progenitors had left the circumpolar country and while they were en route from polar to equatorial regions."

THE FEMINIST MOVEMENT IN CHINA.

IN recent numbers of the REVIEW we have noticed the remarkable awakening among the women of Persia, Turkey, and Algiers. Now China has to be added to the list of countries the women of which are "striking for their rights." According to M. Albert Maybon, in *La Revue* (Paris) for October 15, the signs are unmistakable that Chinese family life is destined at no distant date to undergo a complete transformation. It must be admitted that the present condition of woman in China cries aloud for amelioration. It is an axiom in the Middle Kingdom: "The daughter is subject to her father; the wife to her husband; the mother to her son." The family is the basis of the state, and the subordination of the woman is the fundamental law of the family. The *raison d'être* of the legal marriage in China is to give to the deceased members of the family male descendants who shall care for their sepulchral existence: in due course these descendants will celebrate the domestic rites, and the entombed ancestors will be made happy.

The daughter does not count for anything. At eight years of age her feet are deformed. She enters the gynaeceum, or women's apartment, thoughtless and ignorant. Between twelve and thirteen she is married, her husband having been selected without consulting her. From this moment she is free of parental control and devotes herself entirely to her new life. If she presents her lord with no children, he may repudiate her. Commonly the husband purchases other women, who become wives of the second rank; and the children of these are admitted to equal rights with those of the legitimate wife. If the latter be childless, her existence is an intolerable one. . . . To terminate it she generally has recourse to suicide. In the case of widowhood, if she belongs to the poorer class, she may remarry; if, on the other hand, she mourns a mandarin, she is condemned to widowhood for the rest of her days, and she must dwell with her deceased husband's parents, of whom she has become the property. Only when a woman has borne numerous sons does she attain to an enviable position: now she is honored in respect of a long line of heirs through whom the memory of their ancestors will be kept green.

The feminist movement in China may be said to have originated with K'ang Yeou Wei, who is known as the "modern Confucius," and who was the author of the revolution of 1898. In 1891 he published some exegitical works on the Chinese classics, and in connection therewith created no small surprise by anticipating "a democracy in which the masses should partake of the responsi-

bilities of government, and in which the two sexes should enjoy equal rights." Since then the movement has been steadily growing. Anti-footbinding societies have been established; numerous young women's clubs have been formed, and some of the members have boldly proclaimed themselves as "girls who follow their own will." At Peking and Shanghai a "gazette for young women and girls" has appeared; and in a recent number of the *Pei king niu pao* one reads the following:

O ye two hundred millions of Chinese, our sisters, listen! In China it is said that man is superior and woman inferior; that man is noble and woman vile; that man should command and woman obey. . . . But we are not under the domination of man. The nature of man and of woman is the universal sense of Heaven. How, then, can one make distinctions and say that the nature of man is of one sort, and that of woman of another? for the celestial principle has neither form nor figure. *

Recently the second wife of the celebrated Yuan Che-k Bai, president of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, said in the course of an address:

It is stated that the population of China numbers 400,000,000. But, if one deducts from this figure the Chinese women and considers them as ciphers, China has but half of its inhabitants. . . . The woman who remains in ignorance wrongs not only herself, but also her family and her country.

A notable sign of the times is the eagerness with which translations of European books are being read by Chinese women. In place of the works of native authors there is a constantly increasing demand for those of Dumas, H. G. Wells, Jules Verne; and even "Robinson Crusoe" has had such a vogue that "Man Friday" has become quite a popular hero. The adventures of the indomitable Sherlock Holmes (who in Chinese becomes *Fou-euell-mo-se*) have "capped the most marvelous in the national literature." It is noteworthy, too, that one of the prominent romances recently published in Chinese has for its title "Free Marriage."

One feature of the feminist movement is that to a certain extent it is receiving official endorsement, indirectly if not directly. At the suggestion of the wives of certain ministers the court has decided to send thirty young women abroad to study medicine and the industrial and the fine arts. And in the new code of education for women occur the following:

The good education of the citizens of the empire depends upon the good education of its women.

There are certain undesirable customs in China: some men regard women with scorn; others treat them harshly.

Women, like men, should practice the professions: they ought not to pass their lives in eating and gossiping and with no employment.

But the same act recites that:

Women should remain subject to their fathers, mothers, and husbands.

When proposals are made tending to a free *rapprochement* of the sexes, these should al-

ways be combated. The woman should not have the right to choose her husband, etc.

And the Minister of Public Instruction forbids

the pupils in the schools to take part in meetings for the purpose of criticising the administration, and in conferences organized by young men; to form clubs, associations, to direct journals, to write on the social evolution, etc.

From all of which it will be seen that the fair "progressivists" have still some fighting before them.

A TRIBUTE TO CHARLES ELIOT NORTON.

"MORE than he could ever have dreamed, the passing of Mr. Norton has stirred among those whose lives came within his influence a deep sense of 'loss in all familiar things.' There can be no more tender consecration of a human memory. What he meant for so many of us is shadowed in the fact that, when one tries to write of him, the pen will hardly trace any prefix to his name. Norton alone we have always called him among ourselves,—partly in admiration, partly in affection. Any intruding word now seems tinged with perfunctory untruth." These words occur in a graceful and touching tribute to the late Harvard professor from the pen of Prof. Barrett Wendell, in the current number of the *Atlantic Monthly*. Himself a former pupil of Professor Norton, Professor Wendell is able to draw largely on college reminiscences, and his observations on his old mentor indicate the peculiarly cordial relations which existed between the teacher and his students.

Referring to the fact that thirty years ago it was the fashion of some to pretend that, compared with his erudite colleagues, Norton was a man rather of culture than of learning, Professor Wendell admits that temperamentally this might be true.

Mere information he valued at its own insignificant worth. Whatever he knew, throughout the years of his unceasing acquisition, he cared for only when he could perceive its relation to the system of truth and of wisdom toward which his aspiration stayed courageous. His learning was never a thing apart; it was a part of himself. Yet the better you knew him the more you marveled, not only at its range, but at its accuracy,—an accuracy superficially submerged in the ease of his mastery. Thus, whenever we found ourselves in the presence of literature, of fine art, of history or philosophy, of politics, or even of the men and the

deeds of each passing year, we grew experienced and secure in faith that Norton knew it all before us,—that we might turn to him, at any moment, should opportunity serve, for instant, resolute opinion. This opinion would often differ from your own; it might even excite you to passing resentment; but it could never be ignored. It became, you could hardly tell when or how, a factor in your habitual estimates of life. When such an influence has persisted through five and thirty years, the world can never again seem quite the same without it.

As a teacher, his supreme trait was his "exquisite precision,—of manner, of speech, of knowledge, and even still more of conviction. . . . He used to make his instruction penetrate natures on which the instruction of so many other men only impinged." An interesting example of this is cited:

In a lecture about some aspects of the fine arts of Greece he uttered devastating comments on the contrast between Greek articles of personal adornment and the machine-made scarf-pins, or watch-chains with dangling appendages, then observable in any company of American youth. A classmate of mine subsequently reproached him, in private, for lack of sentiment. The boy possessed some golden ornament, in the form of a horseshoe, affectionately given him by his mother; he was proud to wear it, he said, for her sake. Norton's reply, I believe, was gentle but final: an object of piety, he pointed out, is not consequently a thing of beauty. My friend's ardor of resentment took some time to cool. Years afterward, though, I met him at a Roman goldsmith's, choosing some trifle for his wife. The horseshoe still gleamed not very far from his heart, where it belonged; but, as he showed me two pieces of delicate workmanship between which he was hesitating, he asked me, seriously and simply, which I thought Norton would prefer.

The least salient yet perhaps the most extraordinary phase of his culture was his faculty of acquisition, which he had learned to use with remarkable certainty and swift-

ness. Professor Wendell recalls a notable instance of this:

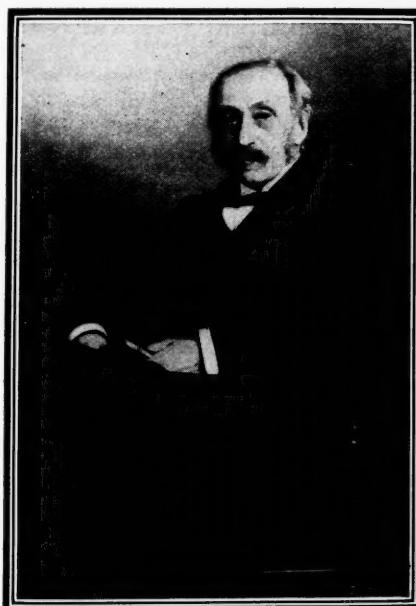
In 1891 a committee of which we both were members authorized me to select, during a short visit to London, a number of books, to be given as prizes to Harvard students. At different times, for a good many days, the matter engaged my punctilious attention. The books, finally chosen, were sent to America. Lists of them, left in my possession, reminded me from time to time of what they were. If any one could carry in mind what that invoice contained, I should have supposed it would have been I. Meanwhile, having agreed with other members of the committee to intrust the purchase to me, he never saw either list or books until we assembled at Harvard, one autumn afternoon, to assign the prizes. The books were spread on a large table. For ten minutes or so he looked them over; and I like to remember that he said something approving my choice. Then he sat down in some comfortable place from which he could not see the titles. The assignment of prizes began; one book allotted to this student, the next to that, and so on. By the time we had dealt with a half dozen I could not have told you what was on the table or what had never been there,—still less what had been assigned to whom, and what not. Norton, meanwhile, not only kept the whole fortuitous collection, of forty or fifty volumes, clearly and firmly in mind; from his distant chair he reminded us with unfailing accuracy of just how we had disposed of every book already dealt with.

Of Norton's relations with his students, Professor Wendell says:

He not only encouraged us; he was always willing that we should turn to him for counsel. Of the men who thus youthfully came within range of his influence, all who survive are now older than he was then. None of us, I think, has been very close to him in later life; yet none has ever forgotten him. So far as we have accomplished anything in literature or in art,—and even though our work may mostly have little endurance,—we have tried to make it sweeten life and never vulgarize,—a constant element of our strength has sprung from the welcome he gave us when want of welcome might have meant starvation. He never pretended to approve us without reserve; but he understood that we were trying to be real. We can never fail in gratitude for our passing share in the greatness of his friendship.

The personal reticence of the late professor had a peculiar grace, counting intrusion beneath the dignity of friendship.

When he spoke or wrote, publicly or in private, about friends who had gone before him, he was scrupulous to extenuate nothing nor aught to set down in malice. Above all else, however, he was punctilious in respect for their domesticity. Anecdote he loved; gossip he disdained; scandal he despised; shameless intrusion he so detested that his incessant care was to guard others, perhaps excessively, from the consequences of their own unpremeditated utterance. Not to reverence his example were disloyal.



PROF. CHARLES ELIOT NORTON.

(The late New England scholar, student, and man of culture.)

At times there was something almost repellent about the calm certainty of his conviction. "In controversy, he would sometimes appear so sure of himself that you were prone to fancy his vision infirm." In this connection the Boston *Transcript* remarked (anent the late professor's attitude toward art and artists of the present day):

Professor Norton has been accustomed to say that there had been no sculpture since the ancient Greeks and no painters since the great Italians of the sixteenth century and the Renaissance. So conscientious in his convictions has he become . . . as to be unable to change them.

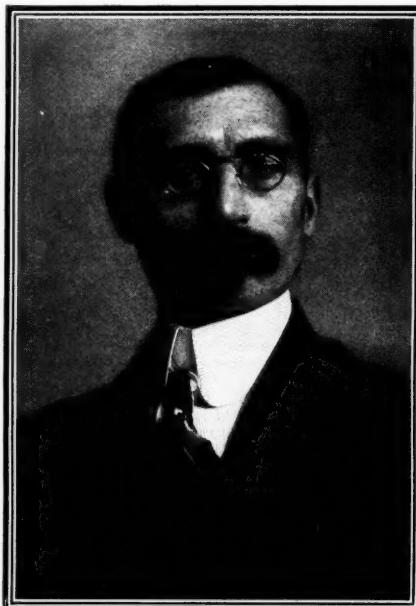
This trait was, however, more apparent than real. His students who sat under him knew the inspiration of his encouragement; and perhaps what was most helpful to them, says Professor Wendell, was his friendliness to aspiration.

Equally was he the friend "of men themselves called great." Carlyle, Ruskin, Matthew Arnold, Emerson, Longfellow, Curtis, Lowell, and Howells,—the list of his friends might lengthen long. And, adds Professor Wendell:

Seek, and you shall not find a single one, among the seemingly greater about him, ignobly distorted by his companionship.

GUGLIELMO FERRERO: ROME'S NEW HISTORIAN.

FEW visits of eminent foreigners to the United States have evoked so much interest in American literary circles as that of Signor Ferrero, the historian, of whom an appreciative notice, from the pen of Sibilla Aleramo, appears in the December *Putnam's*. And the interest is fully justified by both



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GUGLIELMO FERRERO.

the man and his work. "Ten or twelve years ago," says this writer, "there appeared in Italy a new writer full of ideas,—a rarity in this country. He was a young man of only twenty-five, but his book, "Young Europe,"—a collection of studies made in Germany, Russia, England, and Scandinavia,—had an immediate success."

Thus Guglielmo Ferrero became instantly famous. The son of a Piedmontese railway engineer, he was born at Portici, near Naples, in 1871. Educated in Tuscany and Umbria, he studied law at Pisa, and took a diploma in belles-lettres at Bologna in the school of the great poet Carducci. . . . At an early age he began his travels. At eighteen he was invited by Cesare Lombroso to collaborate in his work, "La Donna Delinquente" ("The Female Offender"), and his name may be seen on the title-page beside that of the famous psychologist. His doctoral thesis, "Les Symboles dans le Système juridique," had the honor of an immediate

translation into French. . . . Italian and foreign periodicals immediately solicited contributions from Ferrero's pen; a great Milanese journal engaged him to write a weekly article; and the Lombard Society for Peace asked for a course of lectures on militarism.

Then came an interval of quiet, and in 1902 the first volume of his masterwork, "The Greatness and Decline of Rome," proclaimed to the world that a new name must be added to the list of great historians. Ferrero's intellectual activity, "which had been spread over a variety of subjects, now became concentrated."

Since then only a few articles, suggested by important events, have appeared from his pen. He has also rounded out his life by his marriage with Gina, the youngest daughter of Professor Lombroso, herself laureate in science and medicine. . . . Tall and thin, ascetic and imperious at once, he is more a man of the North than of the South. In speaking, he becomes animated, and his words flow rapidly and easily like his written prose.

ROMAN HISTORY FROM A NOVEL VIEWPOINT.

To the present, five volumes of Signor Ferrero's history of Rome have appeared. According to the preface, those yet to come will treat of "The Caesars," "The Cosmopolitan Empire," and "The Decadence of Rome." The five volumes already published tell the story of "The Conquest of the Empire." Concerning these the writer says:

In Signor Ferrero's history, for the first time in Italian literature, this past, which formerly has only revealed to us almost fabulous heroes,—called Pompey, Cesar, Cleopatra, Brutus, Augustus, etc.,—unfolds before us like a vast stage on which the masses play a great part,—the agricultural aristocracy, the new commercial middle class, the turbulent people of Rome, the provinces, the tax-collectors in all the centres of the empire. Figures stand out on this background,—agitators such as Cataline, governors enriched by graft, such as Verres, young provincial Italians such as Cornelius Nepos, Cicero, and Varro, hurrying to exercise in the capital their oratorical, poetical, and scientific talents; later on, Horace and Virgil, and powerful bankers like Atticus the friend of Cicero, and Mecænas the friend of Horace. Then the great enemies of Rome emerge, such as Mithridates and Cleopatra. Finally, in high relief appear the great captains, legislators, and conquerors,—Lucullus, Cesar, Augustus,—makers of empire and playthings of fate.

It was in the ordinary course of things that such a vast work should be criticised as well as admired.

Such a work of interpretation and synthesis could not obtain unreserved assent from delvers

in the same fields, philosophical and historic. Its author has been most reproached for not ignoring contemporary history, for comparing modern economic and social facts and conditions with ancient, for often employing a terminology of the present day. Does he lessen the dignity of history when he speaks of "capital" and "syndicates," when he compares the electoral college of Clodius, commanded by Caesar and gathered from the idle and the freed-men supported by the state, to Tammany Hall? The truth is, there are astonishing points of similarity between the Roman democracy and that of our own times. . . . But some modern terms are scarcely appropriate. For instance, the influence of women like Fulvia, the wife of Antoninus; Julia, wife of Tiberius, even of Livia, wife of Augustus,—an influence obtained by intrigue,—has nothing to do with what we know as "feminism," which is the opposite, that is to say, the right of defense and of individual development, obtained openly, by means not characteristically feminine, but simply civic, human.

But, after every critic has had his say, it cannot be denied that, from the point of view

presented by Signor Ferrero, the actions of historic personages acquire a new value.

He shows us the work of Lucullus completely unappreciated by his contemporaries; Cicero is no longer a mere advocate or dilettante philosopher; his orations gain high political significance, his "De Officis" and "De Republica" become socially influential works. Cæsar, seen in his actions, is no longer the demigod of many historians, but a man who wished to reconstitute the democratic party, enlarge the policy of Lucullus, and form a personal government, and who did not succeed; a great man, but not a great statesman. . . . Augustus, who was not the comedian some historians have thought him, but wished sincerely to construct the republic without sacrificing the old institutions, having tried several times to retire to private life, had to resign himself to becoming the head of the state. He governed wisely for forty years, during the dissolution of the ancient institutions. The empire was consolidated, to remain united for two centuries.

It has been asked "Was a new history of Rome needed?" To this question Signor Ferrero's work is itself the best answer.

CLÉMENCEAU, THE "MARVELOUS OLD MAN."

NO other European Premier has had as checkered a career as Georges Clémenceau, First Minister of the French Republic. Just how varied and strenuous this life has been is set forth in virile graphic style by Mr. Vance Thompson in a recent issue of *Human Life*. In general characterization of Clémenceau Mr. Thompson says:

It is when you see him in parliamentary battle that you get the full measure of the man. You see his courage, his contempt for fools, his superb self-confidence. He is no orator as French orators go, full of the Jauresque fury of words. There is wit; there is irony, and there is a dangerous power of invective. Few men, other than Paul Déroulède, have cared, or care now, to face Clémenceau in debate, for of all these politicians of to-day and yesterday he knows so many things. And of that discouraging fact they are aware.

A very important point in Clémenceau's career, we are told, was his sojourn in the United States.

Kindly memories must stir in him, for Clémenceau has thrown all his influence for many years to bring about the friendliest relations with the United States. England, too, succored him when he was an outlaw from his own country. And Clémenceau has paid his debt in full to England. To him and to no other man is due the *entente cordiale* which has bound the two nations, so unfriendly five years ago, into a kind of brotherhood. He has made popular,—in the Latin civilization of France,—the hardier ideals



From *Illustration, Paris.*

CLÉMENCEAU, IN HIS NATIVE VILLAGE.

(The French Premier loves to steal away from the cares of state to his native town of Bocage, in the Vendéés. He is here walking with a cousin, for the Premier is of peasant stock.)

of the Anglo-Saxon world. I do not think this was done out of any definite policy. Rather, I believe, it was the result of sentimental fondness for American and English ideas,—a grateful memory of his own early days. Clémenceau is not one to execute a coldly conceived plan. He is a Prince Rupert of politics. He loves battle. And when he fights for an ideal it is because something has stirred his blood. Now in binding France to England he has paid royally for the hospitality and comfort given him in the dark days of the Commune and the darker days of Panama. It is for this new alignment of the nations he will be remembered in history,—not for Dreyfus warfare nor the crusade against the Catholic Church.

One notable phase in the Clémenceau character is gratitude. That he pays off old scores in politics is simply what is true of every political fighter. Hard blows are the rule, not the exception, in the political arena. Our last Presidential campaign gave ample evidence of that. Mr. Thompson says, in illustration:

Through him [Clémenceau] England has made peace with her ancient enemy Russia. Through him the German war-lord has been hemmed in on every side and instructed in the beauties of peace. That so great a work should have been due to an impulse of gratitude would be strange indeed were not Clémenceau exactly

the kind of man he is. Up to the age of sixty-seven he owed scores right and left,—scores of money, vengeance, and affection. He has paid them every one in due negotiable coin. When he was hooted down in a Panama parliament only one voice was lifted in his behalf,—it was that of a young deputy named Pichou. To-day, under Clémenceau, he is Minister of Foreign Affairs. Paid in full. Courage is good; and you can't help admiring the corsair-like battle Clémenceau has made for half a century; brain is a good thing and you rather like the Clémenceau brain, with its cynicism and keen vision; but it is as a debt-payer that Clémenceau will gain your greatest approbation,—for whether in vengeance or gratitude he pays. The marvelous old man!

What strikes most in Clémenceau, concludes Mr. Thompson, is his astonishing vitality.

For the years you know of he battled with failure, obloquy, and indigence; and then of a sudden his star rose,—a gray Saturn creeping up into the place of power,—and triumph tasted sweet upon his old lips and made him young again. His name will go down into history,—not as that of a great man,—but somehow or other the world will not willingly let die the memory of this bold, sneering, desperate old man who snatched,—at sixty-seven!—the mastership of France. It is at once too exceptional and too dramatic.

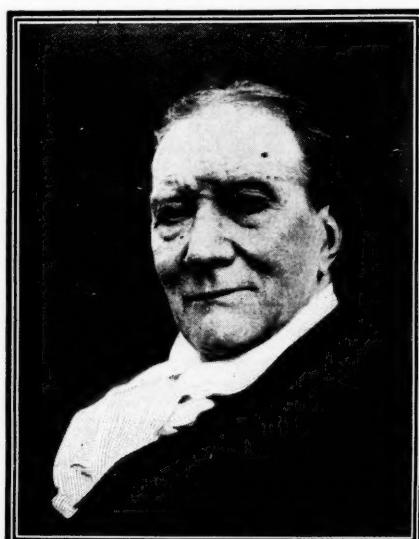
SARDOU, AS SEEN BY HIS CONTEMPORARIES.

A STRIKING sentence in the eulogy upon the late Victorien Sardou, which appeared in the *Figaro* (Paris) sets forth the point of view of all intelligent Frenchmen on the career and influence of the dramatic author who has just passed away. The writer says:

The church, so long ostracized because of the advantages given the opposition through the separation law, came into her own again at the obsequies of Victorien Sardou. Added to the splendid spectacle of a funeral according to the strict Catholic rite, Paris saw the body of the only dramatic author ever decorated with the French order of the Legion of Honor escorted to the church by official representatives of the national government, the army of the republic, and the municipality of Paris.

The government was represented on this occasion by M. Doumergue, Minister of Public Instruction, who, in the course of his address, declared: "Sardou served his country in other ways than by his dramatic labors; he gave his authority and his experience for the defense of French letters." In the course of a long oration upon the same occasion, M. Paul Hervieu, speaking in the name of the dramatic authors of France, said:

The name Victorien Sardou means more to us than the appellation of a dramatic author. It is



VICTORIEN SARDOU, JUST BEFORE HIS DEATH.

our rallying cry. It is the symbol of indisputable authority, of ruling power for good, of long years of passionate devotion to the art and the literature of France and to the Society of French authors.

In a biographical article in the *Monde Illustré* an anonymous writer tells us:

Born in Paris in 1831, Victorien Sardou produced his first play at the age of twenty-three. This production, entitled "*Maison des Étudiants*," fell flat. Sardou, however, was a born playwright, and his failure did not dishearten him. He was an artist who sketched close to nature, a musician who harmonized everything he touched, a dramatic author of versatile and powerful imagination. "*Madame Sans-Gêne*" was written in answer to those sarcastic critics who taunted Sardou with being a "jobber of the drama." After "*Madame Sans-Gêne*" the critics were silent. . . . Sardou was the incarnation of dramatic work: vaudeville, legitimate drama, histories, sketches of current man-

ners and habits, everything dramatizable. With all, he was an expert stager of plays, kind, and indulgent, but determined and tenacious. . . . Sardou was a walking encyclopedia. His memory was unfailing and to the last every one consulted him and depended on him.

In a long appreciation appearing in the *Annales M. Emile Faguet* says:

The bases of his nature were, first, anxiety to know all things and to acquire just judgment and sagacity; and, second, a many-sided mind incessantly in action. . . . He had by birth the art of combining the activity of his mind with a thousand different tastes and literary impulses. That perhaps was his only secret. He lived his life, a well balanced one, constantly solicited from all sides, constantly interrupted, incessantly renouncing himself, and taking for discipline and moral exercise what other men deplored as interruptions. As a whole, his life was useful, beautiful, supremely intense, and wonderfully fruitful for good.

THE TERCENTENARY OF JOHN MILTON.

IT was a happy idea, that of duplicating in New York the celebration in the church of St. Mary-le-Bow, London, of the three-hundredth anniversary of the birth of John Milton. The simple fact that the poet should be thus honored simultaneously in the Old World and in the New is a sufficient answer to those who are wont to complain that Milton is not appreciated to-day to the extent that he ought to be. The appropriateness of the New York celebration was happily set forth in the letter written on the occasion by Ambassador Bryce:

It is well the occasion of John Milton's birth should be celebrated in America, not only because he was a friend to some of those who planted the institutions of England on these Western shores, but also because he was the man who best expressed in verse of unsurpassed beauty and the inspiration of incomparable strength those ideas of the Puritans of the seventeenth century which so profoundly affected the American spirit.

Of the numerous articles in the magazines and in the daily press to which the anniversary gave rise, one of the most interesting is that by Prof. Harry Thurston Peck in the current issue of the *Cosmopolitan*, entitled "The Many-Sided Milton." Speaking of the remarkable contradictions in the character of the author of "*Paradise Lost*," he says:

According as we view him from one angle or another, he seems quite inconsistent with himself. Indeed, there are several Miltons, each of them almost unrelated to the others. What has

the young Milton, expanding under the blue skies of Italy, writing sonnets to pretty girls or singing in blithesome mood of "spicy nut-brown ale" and tipsy dance and jollity,—what has he to do with the dour Latin secretary to the Commonwealth, inditing grave despatches of state, or hurling foul names at the Lord Protector's enemies? And still another Milton is the Milton who wrote "*Paradise Lost*," dignified, austere, and yet benignant. We are apt to think of Milton as the strictest of religionists, and it is hard to reconcile this aspect of the man with his neglect of public worship and with the fact that in his later years he had no prayers at home. And then there is the harsh, stern, tyrannical Milton who made even his children hate him,—the schoolmaster and writer on education, who, nevertheless, would not have his eldest daughter even learn to write.

When Milton's blindness came upon him, "his daughters were his slaves, and, like all slaves, they united against their master."

Thus, if Milton made them read to him for long hours, and rated them for their mistakes, they took their revenge in petty pilfering, and they sold for their private gain many of the books he loved.

Professor Peck thinks "it is pleasanter to draw a veil over this chapter of a great man's life," and we agree with him.

The Poet's Deep Scholarship.

Alluding to Milton's erudition, Mr. J. E. G. de Montmorency, in the *Contemporary Review*, characterizes him as a scholar in the fullest sense.

His scholarship was the fruit of untiring labor. When the slight, beautiful boy went to Christ's College, Cambridge, in 1624, and was there nick-



JOHN MILTON AT SIXTY-TWO.

named "The Lady," from his singular physical charm, he was already learned beyond the wont of a learned age. . . . Already complete master of Greek, Latin, French, and Italian, and a student of Hebrew, he remained at Cambridge eight years, and enriched his scholarship with all that the university could offer.

This writer instinctively compares him with Shelley.

They had everything in common except character. . . . Each wore the mantle of song from childhood, each was steeped in classical tradition, each looked with burning heart on the political and social discontents of his own age. Their respective visits to Italy illustrate this fact. . . . Milton returned to England, untarnished in morals and with a European reputation for culture and learning. Shelley found his grave in Italy,—the grave of almost infinite powers. . . . I would deliberately compare “Prometheus Unbound” with “Paradise Lost” as a further instance of a kinship hardly paralleled in the annals of literature.

Milton's Public Services.

Referring to Milton's labors for the commonwealth, Mr. William Aspenwall Bradley, in the *New York Times Book Review* for December 5, says, that,

though they claimed twenty of his best years, they probably did not seriously interfere with his artistic development, or greatly lessen his productivity as a poet. They merely satisfied that fierce need for personal participation in political affairs which was part of his nature, and which

forged meanwhile to a higher temper the slow-rising power within him, purging it of all latent elements of weakness. The Puritan revolution gave him, in a sense, the ideal subject for his great poem, and it gave him, too, in the hard discipline which his work as Latin Secretary and pamphleteer imposed upon him, the power to treat this subject not as he might have treated it in his young manhood, with an unripened exuberance of extraneous ornament, but with all the spare muscular energy of a mind intellectually athletic.

Mr. Bradley brings out clearly another point, Milton's treatment of nature. He says:

In a sense Milton is the pioneer in the introduction of nature as a major theme in English poetry, so greatly did he enlarge the scope of the old pastoral form by introducing into it elements of direct nature. But it is nature uninterpreted, nature without mystery or life of its own, nature seen always objectively and as landscape, that he depicts it.

"Our Supreme Literary Man."

Mr. Wilfred Whitten has an article in *Putnam's* for December. He repeats there-in a question asked by him in the *Academy* eight years ago, whether writers of to-day "sufficiently remember and attend on Milton as our supreme literary man."

For Milton is the greatest workman in words whom writers of English can watch and understand. Every young writer should learn from Milton what our language can do, and every young critic what our language has done.

It will be remembered that Macauley, also, regretted that Milton's prose writings should be so little read. He considered that, viewed merely as compositions, they deserved

the attention of every man who wishes to become acquainted with the full power of the English language. They abound with passages compared with which the finest declamations of Burke sink into insignificance. Not even in the earlier books of the "Paradise Lost" has the great poet ever risen higher than in those parts of his controversial works in which his feelings, excited by conflict, find a vent in bursts of devotional and lyric rapture.

His Intellectual Vastness.

A reverent analytical appreciation of Milton appears in the current *Atlantic Monthly* from the pen of the Rev. George A. Gordon. This analysis of the poet's distinctive gifts is worth noting:

In Milton there are no concealments, no pretensions, no sudden surprises, but one continuous amazement over sustained power. As he writes with pathetic fidelity to his own character, in his blind eyes alone, which appeared as if their vision was perfect, was he a dissembler, and that against his will. What we find in Mil-

ton are vast knowledge vitalized by an imagination unsurpassed for compass and originality in human history, pathos deep as life, an ear for harmony faultless and sure, strength in every energy of mind, and grandeur in every instinct of his being. There is in Milton no humor, no persuasive sympathy with light-heartedness and laughter, no happy setting of our human pilgrimage in the sweet heart of nature as in Chaucer, no union of legend and dreamy, mystic spirituality as in Spenser, no divine variety such as we find in Shakespeare, no palpitating, irrepressible lyric humanity as in Burns.

In Milton we meet, as in no other poet in our tongue, the stately march of vast powers, the noble vision of the ideal side of existence, rapt regard for moral and eternal issues, prophetic insight and prophetic fire, oracles of splendor in music like that of the spheres, an organ voice, as Tennyson says, with an anthem sublime, moving in its mighty monotone, a monotone admitting every variety of color and shade, weaving into its majestic fabric the weariness, the sorrow, the despair, and the victory of great spirits, its warp and woof the light and darkness of the world.

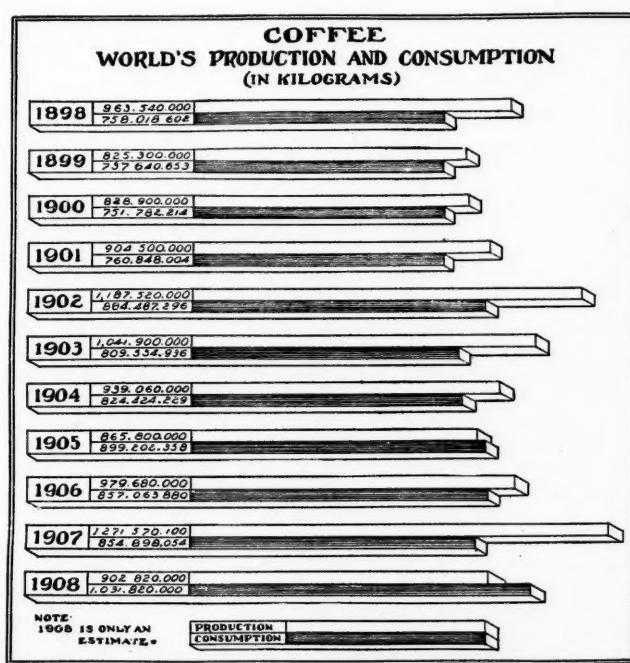
COFFEE, THE WORLD'S DRINK.

A GRAPHIC and informing editorial review of the coffee situation,—production and consumption,—appears in the November number of the *Bulletin of the International Bureau of the American Republics*. According to the writer, during the year 1908 Brazil, the producer for the world, gave us 11,500,000 bags; Central America exported 1,500,000 bags, and Venezuela came third with 950,000 bags. The East Indies, including Java, produced 697,000 bags, and Haiti sent abroad 50,000. The article referred to has the following to say of the introduction of coffee into Europe:

The first coffee shrubs grown in Europe were carefully raised and studied in conservatories by French and Dutch scientists in Paris and Amsterdam. The energetic Dutch were quick to perceive the economic value and possibilities of coffee, and in 1690 the first tree was transported from Mocha, Arabia, to Batavia, Java, by one Nicholas Witsen, of Amsterdam. This tree flourished in its new home, and, as the climate, geographical position, and soil of Java and the adjoining Dutch Indies proved favorable to coffee-raising, the plant multiplied with wonderful rapidity in those far-off Oriental possessions of Holland, and the foundation was thus laid for one of the principal sources of her commercial prosperity.

Romantic stories are attached to the introduction of coffee into the New World.

It is, for example, asserted that De Clieux, a Norman gentleman and naval lieutenant, sailed in 1723 from France for Martinique, in the West Indies, and took with him a coffee-tree intrusted to his care by a physician. The voyage was long and tempestuous, but De Clieux shared his scanty portion of drinking-water with the plant, which, though weak upon its arrival in Martinique, recovered under De Clieux's watchful care. From this tree, it is said, came all the coffee-shrubs in the island, which more than supplied all the coffee required for the consumption of the whole of France. According to





THE COFFEE-TREE AND BERRIES.

Rossignon, the ancestor of all the coffee-trees in Brazil was grown in the Jardin des Plantes of Paris, but other authorities assert that a Portuguese named Joao Alberto Castello Branco planted in 1760, in Rio de Janeiro, a coffee-bush originally brought from Goa.

As to the color and size of the beans, the writer of this article says:

The color and size of the berries differ very much, as is demonstrated in a table published

by Arnold, which represents the number of grains that can be contained in a small measure capable of holding fifty grams of water. It contains 187 of the dark, fine Java coffee, 203 of Costa Rica, 207 of the good Guatemalan, 210 of the good Caracas, 213 of the Santos, 217 of Mocha, 236 of Rio, 248 of Manila, 313 of western Africa. In other words, Java beans are the largest, as fewer of them enter into the measure, and the scale diminishes until it reaches western Africa coffee, of which 313 beans fill the same measure that will contain 187 of Java. The same author maintains that coffee becomes better as it ages. Java coffee of superior quality is not exported until six or seven years after it has been picked. As it becomes drier, when it is roasted, it produces a richer cream.

As to the culture of coffee, the writer says:

The successful cultivation of the coffee-bush requires an expert knowledge, which can be gained only by experience and by experiment. The plant flourishes best in well-watered and drained regions, in a hot, moist climate, at considerable elevation, in a rich soil. Other conditions being favorable, it can withstand occasional light frosts. The rainfall should be 75 to 150 inches per annum, well distributed over all the seasons. Irrigation, when required, as in certain portions of Arabia and Mexico, must be intermittent, so as to avoid a water-soaked soil. The soil must be porous, as an impervious stratum within reach of the taproot (which is thirty inches long) is fatal, for no sooner does the taproot reach it than the tree falls off and dies.

IS MODERN GERMANY HOPELESSLY DECADENT?

THIS question has been answered in the affirmative time and again by many a distinguished foreigner visiting Germany and studying the German people. However, just as strong as the assertions of these visitors are the denials on the part of German men of science, who have always maintained that the great masses in Germany are as healthy as ever and that a country whose inhabitants during the last thirty years have increased at the rate of nearly 700,000 a year need not fear the fate of Babylon or of Rome.

It is all the more significant that now from their own rank and file a serious cry of warning is raised, from a man who for years has studied the economic conditions and the moral standards, the literary and art life in Germany, and who, during many years, has retained his optimistic confidence in the future of the German people. That this man should now turn pessimist proves that the conviction of the seriousness of this decay is grow-

ing stronger and stronger in Germany herself.

Dr. Otto Schmidt-Gibichenfels, the well-known ethical German writer, publishes an essay in the *Hammer*, a bimonthly published at Leipsic, in which he speaks of this perversity in Germany. He does not refer to certain scandals which have attracted such attention during the beginning of this year, but of what he calls "the perversion of healthy nature and true culture which permeates large classes of society, and which has wormed its way into all domains of ethical and even esthetical life." He says:

In business life, in politics, in social life, on the stage, in literature, in the daily papers, in magazines, in art exhibits, wherever we look, we find the unnatural, the ugly, the common, the low in the lead. It is true that this fashion is created by certain circles in the large cities, but these circles set the fashion, dictate the taste to the entire material and spiritual life of our times, and they carry the germ of decadence in such

stratas of society which are still comparatively healthy.

Dr. Schmidt-Gibichenfels admits that he has for years underestimated the danger of this disease, that he has placed too much confidence in the soundness of the independent educated middle class of the nation. But he sees this class becoming economically more and more reduced, intellectually less and less influential. "The struggle for existence," he comments, "uses up all their power. There is neither time nor money nor strength left for the common weal, for the cause of culture."

The heaviest burden of these most critical conditions is borne by such writers and artists who still belong to the healthy class, and who still make a fight against the morass of perversity around them. It is well-nigh impossible for them to find a publisher for their work, a stage for their plays, or a room for their exhibits. All the easier is it made to the overcultivated, financially oftentimes independent decadent dilettante. He finds open doors for his productions, no matter how inferior they may be. Minor talents of decadent nature, or rather because of their perverse character, reign supreme. They not only find publishers, managers, but they also find critics who, thoroughly imbued with the same germ disease, declare the output of these so-called artists the very flower of modern thought and art. Publishers after all are business men, so are managers and art dealers. What they want are "hits" and "sure things." Serious and clean works are therefore almost barred from the market, which is flooded by a literature of perversity to such a degree that soon no thinking person will feel inclined to buy any books or to see any plays whatever. The deplorable fact that a book like "Briefe einer Verlorenen" ("Letters of a Prostitute") has seen an edition of 100,000 in a short time, and that another book, still more inferior, more absurd, more lying, called "Letters of Another Prostitute," has been sold by tens of thousands, prove that the publishers know their public only too well.

These are the conditions as he finds them. Of course, he does not diagnose the case without at least trying to find a remedy, but he admits in the end that he cannot find one. He says:

If the government would step in, all the liberal papers would raise the hue and cry of oppression, of attempts against the liberty of press, art, and science. Can the publishers or managers help? Hardly. For no one seems to know any more where to draw the dividing line between the good and the bad. What to the one is disgusting, represents to the other the highest perfection in art. And to ask the dear public to help the sane, and to help itself? Whoever has tried it knows that it means a miserable failure. It seems impossible to hold up fate. Whither we go? Whoever knows history cannot doubt it. We must not be deceived by the fact that our economic conditions are still seemingly healthy. The intellectual level of a

people cannot sink lower and lower without dragging the economic level along.

Can Germany's Illness Be Cured?

The recent humiliation of Germany through the latest acts of her head has been impending many years, almost since the beginning of the reign of William II., observes the Polish *Zgoda (Harmony)*, of Chicago. All Europe has seen that in Bismarckian Germany, and most of all in Prussia, decay has begun along the whole line. "So great, however, was the prestige of the Germans' victory over France in 1871 and of Germany's political domination of the whole world that some people stubbornly shut their eyes to that which they saw."

The poisoner of Germany was the same man who created her political greatness. Bismarck was a man of genius, but devoid of moral bases in public life. Hence, he rendered such services to his Fatherland with his genius as nobody else before him, yet at the same time he poisoned it through his lack of morality. Bismarck's principle was "Might before right,"—which is simply a translation into other words of the old vicious principle, "Ti end justifies the means." The resulting abscesses on Germany's body are of various magnitudes and of various degree, and accordingly they have various names. Hakatism [Polonophobism], haughtiness, the unrestrained desire of rapine, the delighting in the tortures of weaker peoples, guile and falsehood in the relations with other nations, an itching in the fingers for other people's property, boastfulness, and garrulity,—all these are various symptoms of one disease, blood-poisoning through the criminal principle, "The end justifies the means." Parallel with this manifestation in the political life of the German nation there exists a depraving of its private life and an attendant disappearance of intellectual forces in the nation. Every educated man can without reflection enumerate the names of half a hundred Germans of genius that rendered gigantic services in art and science in the period, let us say, from 1830 to 1880. How many great Germans, however, could we give of the present moment? With the exception of a few octogenarians, who have not yet passed into the grave, we have not one German name to which mankind could bow with respect and gratitude. Bismarck, and after him nothing but Eulenburgs, Bülow, Zeppelins, and the garrulous William II.

But it is not for the Germans of to-day to demand of their government morality in politics, continues this Polish journal, since they themselves are "corrupted to the marrow of the bone by the mania of conquest."

Millions of Germans are raving to-day about a great German empire from Berlin to Bagdad, about the complete annihilation of England, about the seizure of Belgium and Holland, and finally about the transformation of France into a German park in which the tired warriors and diplomats of the "Vaterland" may enjoy a deserved rest.

LOMBROSO ON THE HAPPINESS OF LUNATIC AND OF GENIUS.

PROF. CESARE LOMBROSO, of Turin University, the famous Italian alienist and criminologist who some years ago, in his book "The Man of Genius," set forth the correspondences that he believed existed between genius and insanity, has written an article entitled "Happiness in Idiots and in Geniuses," which may be found in the issue of the Roman *Nuova Antologia*. The professor here shows that supreme happiness is enjoyed by maniacs and by men of genius, a happiness far transcending the emotions of ordinary mortals, but that the duration of this blissful state differs strangely with the two classes mentioned. In maniacs, the feelings of great felicity endure permanently, indefinitely, while men of genius experience them only for the briefest moments. And he bridges over the distance between these two classes by a trait which he finds very common in them both,—that is to say, megalomania. It may perhaps be well to note that Professor Lombroso is usually considered as very much of a pathological experimentalist; this does not necessarily mean that he goes by guess work, but his theories are not always of such a nature that they can be accepted as conclusive. Nevertheless, his ideas are invariably interesting and provocative of thought and discussion; "The Man of Genius" was attacked and defended all over Europe.

Pleasure is usually a fugitive thing, he commences; it lasts but a short time, and is followed by long periods of annoyance or weariness or regret. Pain, on the other hand, is more persistent and continuous, so much so that cessation therefrom is often accounted a state of enjoyment. Here, incidentally, mention is made of an instrument constructed by the author of this article for measuring the intensity and duration of pleasure.

Strange to say, the state of complete and lasting happiness, so foreign to sane persons, seems to exist in maniacs. Any one who visits a lunatic asylum for a few hours, where he hears desperate shrieking, imagines that he has come to a place of suffering. But after remaining there for some little time, you agree that only there can be met a type of happiness so prolonged and so complete as to offer the key to the condition of joy that is so extremely fleeting in normal beings. . . . The most common delusion of one afflicted with progressive paralytic dementia is that of wealth: millions of lire, five hundred billions, all the money in the



CESARE LOMBROSO.

world, to the limit of the idiot's imagination and powers of arithmetic. But mostly the delusion of importance or greatness expresses itself in all manner of forms without particular cohesion. The idiot first boasts of his physical qualities and capabilities, his excellent singing, his enormous weight, his chest of steel, his speed that enables him to run a thousand miles a minute, his bodily secretions of fine wines and precious metals. The women boast of their beauty, of the jewels and ornaments they possess, of the children they give birth to,—twins every day,—and of their husbands, who are princes and emperors. The very entrails of the maniac seem attuned to the height of festivity, as if through intoxication; and this air of perennial joyfulness radiates externally from eyes shining with satisfaction in the height of conscious pride. . . . A man will brag of having dug a tunnel through the whole earth, of having slain ten lions, of singing bass, baritone, and tenor all at once, of having a thousand odalisks in his harem; and he will promise you palaces and honors as the reward of a trifling favor or a kind word. To-day he is general of Europe, king of Rome and the stars; to-morrow he will be pope, anti-pope, coin-specialist, and prime minister. And with the decline of his mentality his elation increases. A woman who was a hopeless case of paralytic dementia persisted in repeating on the two last days of her life, and even in the throes of death, "Oh, how happy I am! How happy I am."

Then there are some peculiar lunatics afflicted with what is known as the circulat-

ing mania. For a few months in the year they manifest extraordinary activity and cheerfulness; they rush about transacting innumerable business affairs, they talk incessantly with a most exuberant flow of language, they display immense altruism. But all of a sudden they collapse, their energy leaves them, and their buoyancy as well; they take to their beds and refuse to speak to any one or to touch food. Instancing some men of genius analogously smitten who enjoyed periods of marvelous exuberance and buoyancy and creative fervor, which were succeeded by long fits of the most terrible, calamitous depression, the author cites the names of Poe, the philosophers Comte and Schopenhauer, the French poets Verlaine, Baudelaire, and Gérard de Nerval.

Stating that with megalomaniacs happiness is of yet shorter duration, because they are so sensitive on the subject of their ambitions, so apprehensive that these be opposed or thwarted, Professor Lombroso passes on to some cases of geniuses who had megalomania. Tasso and Cardano wished it inferred that they were inspired by God, Mahomet declared openly that he actually was. Any criticism of their opinions they looked upon as extreme persecution. Newton was said to have been murderously infuriated against his scientific contraditors. The Poet Lucius would not rise when Julius Caesar entered the Assembly of Poets, because he considered himself the better versifier. The Poet Lenau, in an access of delirium, fancied he was King of Hungary. Wezel, a German novelist, conceived the idea of starting a bank and of making his own bank notes; he finally believed he was God, and gave his books the title, "Works of God Vezelius." The Princess di Conti, informing Malherbe that she could show him the most beautiful verses in the world, he replied: "Excuse me, I have already seen them; because if, as you say, they are better than any others, I must have written them myself." Victor Hugo was governed by the obsession of being not only the greatest of all poets, but the greatest of all men, of all countries, of all ages.

But genius is also allied with melancholy:

One might suppose that all of these, in their imagined greatness, would be the happiest of men. However, this is by no means the case, for the worm of the persecution idea gnaws at the most roseate visions of geniuses, as if they were actual maniacs. It is almost proverbial, this tendency to melancholia among most thinkers, which corresponds to their hyperesthesia. . . . Just because their sight reaches further than the ordinary, and because occupied with

too sublime flights, they have not commonplace habits of mind, and because,—like idiots and unlike people of mere talent,—they are frequently unbalanced, therefore geniuses are despised and misunderstood by the majority, who do not perceive their points of contact with the rest of mankind, but who do see their eccentricities of conduct, and the fact that their views disagreed with those generally accepted. . . . Every one remembers that Rossini's *Barbiere* and Beethoven's *Fidelio* were hissed, likewise Wagner, and in our country Boito because of his opera *Mefistofele*. "There has never been a liberal idea," writes the famous novelist Faubert, "which has not been unpopular, not a true thing that has not scandalized the multitude!"

And as examples of melancholy associated with genius, the author reminds us of Giordano Bruno, the renowned philosopher and astronomer,—burnt by the Holy Inquisition for his views on the nature of God and the constitution of the universe,—Goethe, Burns, Byron, Cooper, Comte, the Italian dramatist, Alfieri, and his compatriot, the essayist Leopardi. The professor also dwells upon the case of the Italian physicist and mathematician, Cardano, to exemplify the frequent connection of megalomania with the mania of persecution. Cardano, he relates, declared himself the seventh genius of creation, adding that only one was born every ten centuries; he asserted that he had learned Greek and Latin in three days, had solved 40,000 problems, and made 200,000 discoveries; he claimed to have risen again after death. This man was haunted by the notion that he had innumerable enemies, who were all conspiring against his life, and he accused the faculty of the Paduan University of attempting to poison him. Cardano was in the habit of wearing a suit and head dress of thick leather; in the daytime he would wear leaded soles weighing eight pounds, and at night would roam about armed to the teeth, his face covered with black cloth.

Yet there is compensation for those melancholic fits so frequent in celebrated thinkers and writers.

Geniuses, indeed, enjoy moments of brief but supernal felicity. These are the moments of creative frenzy, which in so many respects resemble the psychic accesses of epileptics; only, since not an ordinary brain is being agitated by convulsions, but a great mind, instead of some atrocious bestiality or dark crime there results a work of lofty character. Beaconsfield writes that he feels as if there were but a step from intense mental concentration to madness. He says that he can hardly describe what he feels in the moments when his sensations are abnormally acute and intense, that everything about him seems to be alive, that he seems to be raving, and is scarcely sure that he really exists. Anal-

ogous are the confessions of St. Paul, Nietzsche, and Dostoevski. . . . And the illustrious Beethoven says: "Musical inspiration is to me that mysterious state in which the whole world appears to shape itself into a vast harmony, when every feeling and every thought I have seem to resound within me, when all the forces of nature seem to become instruments for me, when my whole body is seized with violent

shivering and my hair stands up on end."

Thus, concludes Lombroso, "may complete happiness be found, by a strange contrast, only in the extreme condition of para-But in the first case it is enduring and sterile; lytic dementia and in that of genius creative." in the other, spasmodic and fruitful.

WHO WILL WIN IN PERSIA,—SHAH OR PEOPLE?

A DEEP interest in the progress of Constitutional reform in Persia is manifested by the Russian press and the Russian public generally. Russian publicists are very well informed on Persian affairs, and, therefore, the following summary of events in Persia, which appears in a recent number of the *Russkoye Bogatstro*, is noteworthy.

The great Iranian race, says this serious Russian review, which withheld for nearly 5000 years both the foreign barbarism and the native tyrant and usurper, now stands at the crossroads. Rapidly summarizing the events of the present revolutionary movement, the writer in the *Russkoye Bogatstro* says:

In 1906 the Shah Muzaffar-ed-din reluctantly signed a "harat" assuring the Persian people of a constitution and free institutions. This manifesto was confirmed by Mohammed Ali Mirza, who had succeeded his father to the Persian throne. But from the very beginning there was felt a reactionary tendency on the part of the Shah and those surrounding him. The Liberal ministry was dismissed. Even the Moderate Conservatives could not hold their places, and the reactionaries enjoyed the confidence of Ali-Mohammed. The Liberal movement was finally stifled, and its leaders fled beyond the boundary. The troops of the Shah have not succeeded, however, in stamping out entirely the opposition movement. The struggle for liberty soon blazed up in full vigor, and there is all reason to believe that the reactionaries have had only a premature victory.

The struggle, in its latest phases, was centered around Tabriz, the nest of the revolutionaries, with their chief Sattar-Khan. The latter demand the convocation of a medglis before disarming, which the Shah refuses.

Eynud, the general of the reactionary army, has given Tabriz an ultimatum, but has acted from the beginning without decision. And there are other indications unfavorable to the cause of the Shah. A proclamation has been issued by the Mushtais, or Ulems, of Nedzef, declaring that "the preservation of Islam and the power of the government depend upon a constitutional order of things." Now Nedzef, a small town in Turkish Asia, is noted for the

grave of the Khalif Ali, and is for the Shüite sect just as holy as Mecca or Medina. The Ulems of Nedzef, therefore, enjoy great authority in the Shüite-Mussulman world, of which Persia constitutes a part. A proclamation such as this could not but sow dissension among the troops of the reactionaries, and it was therefore unwise of Eynud to hesitate in his operations against Tabriz, even after the date of his ultimatum had expired. Meanwhile another proclamation was issued by the Ulems of Nedzef calling for a holy war against the Shah's government. And when an attack was then made by Eynud on Tabriz he was beaten back with heavy loss, whereupon many warriors deserted to the revolutionaries. In opposition to the proclamation of the Ulems of Nedzef, however, the Ulems of Kerbel (where Hussein, the grandson of Mohammed, was killed), always at variance with the former, have issued a proclamation on their part to the effect that those opposing the present system were apostates. The Chief Ulem, at Teheran, also made the same proclamation. This declaration strengthened very much the government of the Shah. Many arrests have been made, and, on the other hand, an ordinance was issued to convoke a medglis, the elections for which were to take place on October 14 and its opening on November 1. At the same time a firman was issued changing a few statutes in the fundamental laws and prescribing regulations for the elections.

But the Tabriz government was not idle either. It reorganized itself and recruited its army, and vigorously continued its propaganda. Soon many cities between Tabriz and Teheran were seized by the revolutionaries. The cause of the Shah went from bad to worse, and finally the news came to Teheran that the army of Eynud had deserted to the enemy, and that he himself barely escaped with his life. At the same time, another proclamation was issued by the Ulems of Kerbel, reversing their previous opinion, and declaring themselves now to be in full sympathy with the revolutionaries.

Under these unfavorable circumstances a new expedition has been dispatched by the Shah's government against Tabriz. This expedition was headed by the Russian colonel, Lyakhov. Lyakhov has organized the Cossacks of the Shah according to the organization of the Donan Cossacks, and now he is making the expedition with

them. On the way to Tabriz he has been joined by the remnant of Eynud's troops and by the robber band of Kakhim. Now the "Cossacks" have gone on the expedition without hope of victory. The fragment of Eynud's army has been demoralized, and the Kakhim's band joined the expedition rather for the sake of plundering than for assisting the Shah.

Since this review was written the cause of

the people has virtually triumphed. Reports of the struggle over the constitution are conflicting. It is fairly certain, however, that the monarch has acceded to the principal demands of his people. England and Russia have semi-officially announced that they will recognize only a constitutional régime at Teheran.

THE RECREATION OF YOUNG CITY GIRLS.

ANYTHING appearing in the public prints over the signature "Jane Addams" compels attention. In a recent issue of *Charities and the Commons* this estimable lady makes one of her characteristic appeals, which municipal authorities throughout the country would do well to heed.

It is estimated that to-day there are in the United States no fewer than 3,000,000 young women engaged in earning a livelihood. Lawyers and doctors, merchants and manufacturers, storekeepers, telegraph and telephone companies are eager to obtain their services and to profit by their labor. All day long, at the typewriter, the sales-counter, the sewing-machine, or the loom, and then, in the evening,—what? We quote here:

Never before in civilization have such numbers of girls been suddenly released from the protection of the home and permitted to walk unattended upon city streets and to work under alien roofs; for the first time they are being prized more for their labor power than for their innocence, their tender beauty, their ephemeral gayety. Society cares more for the products they manufacture than for their immemorial ability to knead over the bread of life and reaffirm the charm of existence. . . . The love of pleasure will not be denied, and when no adequate provision is made for its expression it turns into all sorts of malignant and vicious appetites. Seeing these, we, the middle-aged, grow quite distracted and resort to all sorts of restrictive measures. We even try to dam up the sweet fountain itself because we are affrighted by these turgid streams.

But it is the city itself that has failed in its obligations in this matter, turning over to commercialism practically all the provisions for public recreation.

We need only to look about us to perceive that quite as one set of men have organized the young people into industrial enterprises in order to profit from their toil, so another set of men, and women also, I am sorry to say, have entered the neglected field of recreation and have organized enterprises which make profit out of their invincible love of pleasure. . . . Apparently the modern city sees in these girls only two possibilities, both of them commercial: first,

a chance to utilize by day their labor power in factories and shops, and then another chance in the evening to extract from them their petty wages by pandering to their love of pleasure.

In every city arise so-called "places"—gin-palaces they are called in fiction; in Chicago we euphemistically say merely "places,"—in which alcohol is dispensed, not to allay thirst, but, pretending to stimulate gayety, it is sold solely to empty pockets. Huge dance-halls are opened to which hundreds of young people are attracted, standing wistfully outside a roped circle, for within it 5 cents will procure for five minutes the sense of allurement and intoxication which is sold in lieu of innocent pleasure. These coarse and illicit merrymakings remind one of the unrestrained jollities of Restoration London, confusing joy with lust and gayety with debauchery.

Looking at the girls streaming along our city streets one may perhaps see only "the self-conscious walk, the giggling speech, the preposterous clothing, but through the huge hat with its wilderness of feathers the girl announces to the world that she is here. She proclaims that she is ready to live." We have no business, says Miss Addams, to commercialize pleasure. "Almost instant success attends the first efforts of the city in making municipal provision for recreation."

Chicago has seventeen parks with playing fields, gymnasiums, and baths, which at present enroll thousands of young women and girls. These same parks are provided with beautiful halls which are used for many purposes, rent free, and are given over to any band of young people who wish to conduct dancing parties subject to city supervision and chaperonage. Many social clubs have deserted neighboring saloons for these municipal drawing-rooms, beautifully decorated with growing plants supplied by the park greenhouses, and flooded with electric lights supplied by the park power-house. In the saloon halls the young people were obliged to "pass money freely over the bar," and in order to make the most of the occasion they usually stayed until morning. . . . The free rent in the park hall, the good food in the park restaurant supplied at any cost, have made possible three parties closing at eleven o'clock instead of one party breaking up at daylight, too often in disorder.

LEADING FINANCIAL ARTICLES.

THE BEST BONDS.

"I NOTICE the *Evening Post* advises bonds, not stocks, now," said a New York newspaper reader to a financial acquaintance last month. "I have a legacy to invest, but I've never bought bonds. What do you think are the best?"

"It depends on what kind you need."

"What kinds are there?"

"One kind is best to be turned into cash, at an emergency, without loss of time or money; another is best to hold onto and get high income out of; and a third has the best prospects to rise in price, together with a protection against loss."

"How much of each?"

"Tell your banker how much of your salary you save, how soon your children will need educating, and so forth, and he will make you out a list and a plan."

"You will find it quite entertaining to study bond individualities. You'll soon see why there is no single 'best bond' for a fam-

ily to depend on, any more than a single best medicine or best food."

This conversation featured in the investment of one reader of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. It seems proper to repeat it here for the information of others, because it is under the three heads mentioned above that recent articles in financial periodicals have this month been reviewed, commented on, and illustrated by typical bonds.

The interest in bonds at present is genuine and judicious, as the *Evening Post's* article demonstrated. It appeared December 12, and ran in part:

The "outside public" abandoned the stock market two or three weeks ago, and has not come back; but it has not abandoned the bond market, where, indeed, a very healthy and reassuring investment movement is in progress. That movement is no less gratifying because it is absolutely normal. In fact, one of the oddities of this very odd afterpanic year has been the very belated arrival of the investor in that portion of the market.

THE BEST FOR PROFIT.

"THE real charm of the convertible railway bond strikes deep into the psychology of investment. It has a kind of 'heads I win, tails I don't lose,' quality."

"The owner of the convertible bond enjoys somewhat of the speculative emotion without its serious risks. If the stock rises he sees his bond rise, too; if it falls his bond falls also, but not often below a certain investment rate point."

This neat description is from the *Railroad Age Gazette* of December 11. It remarked on the high popularity of the "convertible" at present; out of \$40,000,000 bonds bought on the New York Stock Exchange during a typical week, \$5,000,000,—one out of eight,—were convertibles. But this professional journal did not stop to explain just how it is that an investor can buy a chance of gain without an equal risk of loss.

An example may be supplied by turning to the Exchange sales of the same week that the above appeared. Two hundred and sixty-eight notes-of-hand of the Atchison Railway,

unsecured by any lien on property, were sold at 102-102 $\frac{1}{8}$. And these prices were materially higher than those of any other 4 per cent. bonds of this road,—even the general mortgages.

Why? Because the Atchison 4s of 1955 are convertible into Atchison stock, dollar for dollar, face value. A \$1000 bond is good for ten shares of stock any time the holder wishes up to June 1, 1918.

Obviously, the bonds will usually sell a little above the stock. The latter passed 110 in 1906, and 108 in 1907. The road is improving its earning power, and the stock eventually is expected to go even higher. At present, it is a couple of points below par. Before it reaches 103, those who purchased the "convertibles" the week ending December 11, will be able to sell at a profit.

Now for the other side: During the sharp break in the fall of 1907, this stock sold down to about 66; these bonds only to 80.

Again, in February, the stock slumped to 66, and rose little above 72; whereas the

bonds held between 85½-88½. Since July, they have stayed above 90, as would be expected in any normal times of the promise to pay of the Atchison Railway, a road strong enough to have earned all its interest charges more than twice over even during the tough year ending June 30, 1908.

Other convertibles worth attention are the Pennsylvania 3½s, the Delaware & Hudson 4s, the New Haven 6s, and, among "industrials," the American Tel. & Tel. 4s, and the General Electric 5s.

For those who sell, the convertible has the advantage of attracting the public, holding old stockholders (to whom the bonds are offered at a lower price) and yet involving no mortgage.

The caution for the investor is to figure out what he is paying for *just a bond*. If the price is not too high for the yield,—and if the company's credit is high enough for safety as with the enterprises mentioned above,—the convertible bond is certainly "the best for profit."

THE BEST TO HOLD.

HALF the story of trolley, electric light, gas, and telephone bond investment lies in this quotation from *Moody's Magazine* of last month :

"Not being so well known as railroads, the public utilities frequently sell at lower prices even when they are a better security."

Here is big income,—5 per cent. and more,—if the buyer is in position to hold on. His interest may be as safe as human ingenuity applied to protection of plant, etc., can make it; also his principal, when due; but a forced sale in the meantime might bring a loss on the bonds, "not being so well known." So anticipate cash needs, as by owning good railroad bonds, or keeping enough in banks before buying most utilities.

The other half of the story appears from the words italicized in this further quotation:

Records show that the *discriminating* selection of stocks and bonds in public utility companies have, during the past ten years, proven the most profitable and safe kind of investment

which can be found. *The best* of them being based on public franchises, located in growing communities and serving to the community light, heat, or power, which is an absolute necessity, are in a far stronger position than a number of other lines of productive effort.

Of course, it is idle to ask a busy man, or a woman with no taste for money matters, to learn "discrimination" in this field.

Indeed, it is a mistake, even for people fairly informed on finance, to rely too much on their own judgment in finding "the best" utilities. They follow no uniform methods of accounting, as do the railroads.

So the first "discrimination" must be turned on the banker. Plenty of firms specialize in public utility securities. Some take up one branch only, as gas or electric bonds. Of all these firms, some show by far the longest and strongest records of having consistently sold their clients "the best." Only as coming from such a firm do statements of earnings and prospects impress the educated investor.

THE BEST FOR EMERGENCIES.

“YOU have simply got to exercise your brain to make anything out of these big-issue, 'listed' bonds. The public takes for granted that anything selling high must be safe,—anything selling low must be cheap. A few take time to get the facts behind the bond. They are the successful investors."

The vice-president of one of the strongest American banks made this remark last month to the writer. The latter had just commented on the morning-newspaper accounts of the month's big railroad and banking event. They were entitled "The Rock Island Situation." "But they might just as

well be headed 'The Balkan Situation,' or written in Assyrian, for all the practical good they will do to ninety-nine out of a hundred readers."

"Yes," said the vice-president, "and there you have a good part of the reason why the Rock Island refunding 4s are now selling at only \$900 on the \$1000."

What the banker had in mind makes a good story. It brings in some entertaining bits of American history, and American finance,—both the old-fashioned kind, and the new "high" kind.

And to tell this story before the review

purposed herein of articles from the London *Statist*, the *Railway Age Gazette*, the New York *Evening Post*, and *Wall Street Summary*, will furnish a typical "brain exercise" for readers in search of "the best bonds for emergencies."

The Rock Island refundings are fair representatives of the kind of bond that can be sold in a hurry. They are listed on the Exchanges of New York, London, Amsterdam, Hamburg, and Berlin. More than \$72,000,000 of them are owned, not only by investors and dealers in America, England, Holland and Germany, but also by the 137 New York State savings banks, for which they are "legal," and which are big buyers of railroad bonds; and they are also in demand by National banks, which are allowed to send them to the Treasury in exchange for Uncle Sam's deposits.

LINCOLN'S PROPHECY.

One of the first to have a vision of the old Rock Island's empire was Abraham Lincoln. In 1860 he was attorney for the little "Chicago & Rock Island" line. Its track ran west from Chicago, striking the Mississippi at the island which gave the road a name. There it had built the first railroad bridge across the big river, the main artery of commerce of the day.

A howl went up from the river-steamboat owners. They actually got an order from an Iowa judge that the bridge should be torn down as an obstruction to navigation!

But Lincoln read the future better. He carried the case to the Supreme Court of the United States and won it. He even dared to prophesy (as Frank H. Spearman recalls in "The Strategy of Great Railroads") "that the time would come when the number of passengers traveling by railroad would equal, and perhaps exceed, those traveling down the river by boat."

PIONEERING, PROFITS, AND CONSERVATISM.

The rest is history. Within sixty years the Rock Island had thrown out some 3700 miles of track, penetrating Illinois and ten States and Territories west of the Mississippi, which had meanwhile grown in population from about 3,000,000 to more than 14,000,000.

The name "Rock Island" got to mean not only pioneering, but also profits and conservatism. Despite its spells of sudden growth, it never defaulted on the interest or principal of its debts.

Moreover, it passed the crises of the Civil War, 1873, 1884, 1890, 1893 (and to bring the matter up to date, 1907) without even the cessation of its yearly cash dividend.

The strength and conservatism of this old-fashioned road in 1897 were significant. Four of its directors had served for sixteen years. The average term of service was about nine and three-quarter years. These cautious gentlemen had lowered dividends to 2 per cent. during '95-'97, but did not fail to spend a reasonable amount to keep track, engines, and cars in good shape. Yet this period bankrupted the Union Pacific, Northern Pacific, Atchison, Baltimore & Ohio, Erie, Reading,—indeed, one-third the railroad mileage of the United States!

Certainly the performance must have been unusual to confuse the public mind so that the very name of the road is now generally obscure, except to those who live on the line, and to dealers in bonds.

THE NEW DIRECTORS.

After W. H. Moore, D. G. Reed, J. H. Moore, and W. B. Leeds were elected as directors of the Rock Island Railway, in 1901, some two thousand miles were soon added to the road, stretching it to El Paso, Galveston, Memphis, and other strategic points. This aroused some comment; the new directors were not all known as railroad men; it had been the consolidation chiefly of big "industrials," such as National Biscuit, Diamond Match, and the tin-plate mills afterward sold to the United States Steel Corporation, that had made their imagination and daring conspicuous.

But this was nothing to the criticism of "Rock Island," by financial and public prints, beginning August, 1902, when two new corporations appeared,—the Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific Railroad, and the Rock Island Company.

The first of these owned something valuable,—most of the stock of the old Railway. The second was hard to interpret, except as merely a means to control the first, through ownership of its stock, at a smaller investment of money.

And the two together, after deducting all duplications of securities exchanged between one company and another, had made \$202,500,000 face value grow where only \$75,000,000 had grown before!

The mystery to most security holders is easy to imagine. Sunday papers and sensa-

tional magazines made great copy out of this exploit of "high finance," often through hasty and inaccurate statements, of course.

Naturally, the new companies still represent "Rock Island" to the popular mind, although they have *absolutely no lien on the earnings of the old Railway*.

Of course, the Railroad, though only a "paper" company, had a function that was real enough. For instance, it soon added to its holdings of Railway stock the entire stock of the St. Louis & San Francisco. By swapping traffic between the two roads, enormous savings seemed possible.

Only the successful event can justify such daring to the public mind. So far, the "holding" of the 'Frisco has not done its part toward raising the market prices of the new stocks and bonds to anything like their face value.

PROSPECTS FOR THE "RAILROAD" AND THE COMPANY."

It is fair to report before finishing with the two new corporations, that many observers from other than a stock market viewpoint give them a good chance to pull through. This chance has looked better since last month, when Speyer & Co., one of the largest American underwriting firms, bought \$30,000,000 of the 'Frisco's new 5 per cent. bonds. "This means much to the company," suggests the *Wall Street Summary*, "as great banking houses always investigate every phase of a bond before offering it to clients."

Of course, earning power, past, present, and prospective, has been considered, together with the magnificent territory served.

The company serves a veritable empire, which is growing rapidly, and with the immense prestige which the name of Speyer & Co. gives to a security, the new bonds should be rapidly absorbed by investors.

The country traversed is productive and most judges believe that the Southwest is one of the most promising sections in the United States for the development of railroads.

Here is apparently an investment opportunity, at the price merely of a simple mental feat,—to wish both the company and the railroad well, but to forget all about them, and get at "the facts behind the bond."

WHAT THE SECURITY IS.

The Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific Railway was operating and owning or leasing in its own right, on June 30, 1908, 7969 miles of road, 1386 locomotives, 809 passenger cars, and 39,581 freight cars; also terminals

and entrance into most of the great cities of the Mississippi Valley,—from Chicago on the Great Lakes, to Denver in the Rocky Mountains; from Minneapolis and South Dakota in the North, to El Paso and the Gulf of Mexico in the South.

This is the railroad behind the bonds under discussion,—its first and refunding mortgage gold 4s, due April 1, 1934. Last month in these pages it was shown that a bond investigation could be briefly put and clearly grouped under three heads,—legal, financial, and personal,—to answer the bondholder's three questions: What is the security for my principal? What are the earnings to pay my interest? and What kind of men are running this road?

A copy of the mortgage shows the bond to be a first lien on 1148 miles of the Railway and a second lien on 5649 miles more. All things considered, the rate is moderate.

Another point of strength "has probably not received sufficient investing notice," explains the *Wall Street Journal* of December 16, as follows:

The Rock Island 4s rest for their safety on terminal properties in St. Paul, Minneapolis, and St. Louis, and on various other properties, including equipment shops. The point to be regarded is that the enhancement of terminal property with the growth of city valuation is constantly giving an increased security to any bonds that are based thereon. If there is anything that gives existing railroads a natural monopoly it is the almost insuperable difficulty of new lines getting independent terminal relations with the competing points from which they draw and into which they distribute traffic.

Finally the bonds are named in the New York law, and for ten years have more than satisfied its tests as to earnings, and proportion of stock to bonds.

SECOND—EARNINGS.

A key to the second answer (and also the third) is furnished by the articles formerly referred to, which have appeared in reputable and accurate journals of finance. To supplement at this point, the reports of the Railway, the old and original "Rock Island," make pretty good reading. They are separate from the reports of the Rock Island Company.

After the object of the game is grasped,—to run your big railroad machine so as to make money, yet to leave it at the end of the year a better machine, in better traffic territory,—a file of railroad reports are not half as bad as they look.

The New York *Evening Post*, a newspaper

which rarely fails to show the darker side, commented thus on the report of the *Railway* for the year of hard sledding ending June 30, 1908, which showed not only all fixed charges earned, together with a 5½ per cent. dividend on the stock, but also a surplus left over of \$788,000:

When it is recalled that the Baltimore & Ohio, the Louisville & Nashville, the New York Central, the New Haven, and a number of other roads created deficits last year in order to pay dividends, it does not appear from the foregoing statement that there was any cause for alarm in the Rock Island situation. *Nor was there, as far as the old railway company was concerned.*

Of course, 1907-'08 was exceptionally tough on railroads. A sounder idea of the Rock Island's ability to pay is seen by reference to the consecutive reports of the road. During each of the five years preceding the net earnings averaged about twice the entire amount of fixed charges. July, 1908, and the following month show recovery toward similar figures.

THIRD—PERSONAL.

The two representatives of the operating force of the old Rock Island are typical Western railroad men. Both have worked up from the bottom, and in the very country in which their present work lies. These men are B. F. Yoakum, chairman of the executive committee, and B. L. Winchell, president of the road. The record of the positions they have held reads like a directory of Mississippi Valley railways. Neither is beyond middle age, and both have displayed the grit and aggressiveness that Westerners like.

Here again the figures tell the story. The road has not been, probably could not be, as economically run as some others partly in its territory, such as the Atchison. But the figures of increasing revenue per ton per mile, and increasing load per train during the last few years, excepting, of course, the hard times just over, show that opportunities are not being neglected.

"Material improvements," writes the London *Statist*, "have been effected in recent years in the condition of the roadway of the Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific."

In 1904 nearly 60 per cent. of the roadway was laid with rails weighing less than seventy pounds, whereas at the end of June last less than 50 per cent. of the road was laid with these light rails, and over 50 per cent. with rails weighing over seventy pounds per yard.

Ballast is another significant item. Looking at the reports, it appears that some 60 per cent. of the road is now ballasted per-

manently with rock, burned clay, gravel or cinder as opposed to sand or dirt. This is an increase of about 5 per cent. over last year, and is a fair percentage for a road with lengthy new extensions in new territory.

A careful and accurate journal, the *Railway Age Gazette*, also finds no cause for alarm in the fact that for 1908 the company spent 9 per cent. less than for 1907 in "maintenance of way." A reduction was natural, and in fact desirable, since the gross earnings fell off 3 per cent. and net 16 per cent. A year ago the *Gazette* had said:

It is evident that the Rock Island has now reached the point where its maintenance expenditures are not only fully taking care of the current depreciation of the property, but making up for insufficient maintenance expenditures in the past.

To consult the *Railway's* reports again: Over and above this full maintenance, there has been spent during the last three years some \$12,000,000 extra "on the road." Even during 1908, there are big items like nearly \$600,000 for bridges and culverts, nearly \$500,000 for ballast, and more than \$300,000 for heavier rails and fastenings. For 1907, these amounts were more than \$700,000, \$1,000,000, and \$240,000 respectively. These three are a few of the many items of the \$12,000,000 expenditure in three years, *in addition to* the regular maintenance charges on the road. The latter on comparison show up proportionately well with its prosperous rivals like the Northwestern, Burlington, Atchison.

It is hard to find that so much extra money could have been spent on the road without material improvement.

People who want to keep some of their money in quickly saleable form can certainly get hints from the above as to means of investigation. Nobody who knows anything would pronounce the Rock Island refundings, or for that matter any other single bond, "the best" for emergencies or for any other purpose. It is apparent, however, that merits are found in this bond which would be expected to command for it a better price, were it not for a cloud of public confusion which the near future may clear.

Any investment banker of standing can supply a file of the road's reports, a copy of the mortgage behind the bonds, and trained experts to comment upon these for the investor's benefit. Such a consultation is an investment safeguard which it is foolish, and nowadays needless, to omit.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

A FEW OF THE SEASON'S NOVELS

It is evident that Miss Marie Corelli has not lost her ability to tell a good story, nor has her ardor and vigor been impaired. These qualities are quite evident in her latest romance, "Holy Orders" (Stokes), which she has subtitled "The Story of a Quiet Life." This highly dramatic tale of the Cotswolds, one of the prides of rural England, is also a powerful temperance tract. The central figures are the devoted, retiring vicar of the little church at Shadbrook,



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MARIE CORELLI.

(Author of "Holy Orders.")

and a very beautiful, heartless village girl, whose highly reprehensible and occasionally "impossible" doings end in a luridly described balloon ascension which results in her death. Americans, says Miss Corelli in her preface, do not understand the real England, since most of them only know a little of London, which is not really English. Americans also, she believes, do not understand the extent of the evil wrought on rural English populations by the tyranny of the drink traffic. Therefore she tells us about these things. In the story "Holy Orders" all the power for evil exercised by the community brewer is set forth in the author's highly colored, swiftly moving style. The reader cannot escape the conviction that the writer is terribly in earnest over her theme. A little too highly dramatic, perhaps, is "Holy Orders," but still undoubtedly a good story.

More than forty years after the appearance of "Under Two Flags," "Ouida's" first successful novel, and but a few months after the death of that gifted writer, there appears a novel entitled "Helianthus" (Macmillan), which was completed during the very last days of the novelist. It is a grandiose tale upon a grandiose theme. International relations and great political and diplomatic movements in modern Europe are seen from the standpoint of the court of Helianthus, which may be identified with Italy. Among the actors in the drama will be recognized imaginative but startlingly suggestive portraits of many of the rulers of modern Europe. The style is vigorous and suggestive.

A novel by the author of "The Martyrdom of an Empress" is one of the noteworthy features of the season's fiction. This story, "The Cradle of the Rose" (Harpers), is a dramatic romance of modern France, treating of a conspiracy growing out of the church and state crisis in the province of Brittany, that Ireland of the French republic. The beautiful, accomplished, and wealthy wife of an English diplomat, who is absent on an Asiatic mission, returns to her native Brittany on a visit, finds herself recognized as a feudal princess and as the head of a royalist insurrection. There is also a young Breton nobleman, an ex-naval officer, who is the hero, and a number of extraordinary situations handled in an original and fascinating manner.

Maxim Gorky's latest novel, "The Spy: The Story of a Superfluous Man," has been translated by Thomas Seltzer and published by B. W. Huebsch, of New York. This novel is in the vivid, intensely realistic Gorky style, depicting the actual life of the Russian of yesterday, of to-day, and perhaps of the immediate future. In it we see the workings of a strange society, the Russian Secret Service, a more remarkable organization even than the Society of Tramps described by Gorky in his earlier tales. The atmosphere is one of deceit, murder, lust, filth, and blood, but we catch glimpses at times of the beautiful potentiality of the Slav peoples for idealism. Very vivid and heart-moving is the



B. L. PUTNAM WEALE.
(Author of "The Forbidden Boundary.")

description of the devotion of the revolutionists and their street demonstrations on that day following the proclamation of the Czar's famous liberty manifesto. The translator has completed his task in a workmanlike manner, and, moreover, has succeeded in communicating much of the spirit and temperament of the original.

Very few living writers can put into a short story the mysterious, haunting atmosphere of the Far East as successfully and subtly as B. L. Putnam Weale, whose volumes on travel, description, and political speculation ("Manchu and Muscovite," "The Reshaping of the Far East," etc.) have been noticed from time to time in these pages. The same vigor, yet haunting (this is the only word) quality that characterized his "Indiscreet Letters from Peking," published two years ago, are soaked into a volume of short stories just brought out by Macmillan, entitled "The Forbidden Boundary." There are other stories in the volume, but the one which gives the title is perhaps the most noteworthy. It is built upon the mysterious physical and temperamental changes that result from the crossing of Eastern and Western races—"the fateful transformation that results from the occult taint in the light-brown woman."

The trilogy begun by Mr. F. Marion Crawford with his novel "The Primadonna" and continued in "Fair Margaret" is completed by the appearance of "The Diva's Ruby" (Macmillan). All of these stories deal with the young English girl, Margaret Donne, who became a great soprano, had many adventures, and finally married the man of her choice. One cannot help becoming affectionately attached to all Mr. Crawford's characters, villains as well as heroes, and it is good to see that in this final volume of the three the action ends as it should,—in the reward of virtue and the discomfiture of villainy.

In "The Revolt of Anne Royle" (Century), Miss Helen R. Martin has, we think, done as keen and clever a piece of character delineation as in her former novel, "Tillie, a Mennonite Maid." This later book is a love story pure and simple, and its main theme is the development of the character of the historian, whose "revolt" ends happily for her and the man she loves.

There is much excitement, much movement, and a great deal of that delicious improbability which reminds the reader of Stevenson, Haggard, and Jules Verne in W. C. Morrow's romance, "Lentala of the South Seas" (Stokes). We have the shipwreck of a band of colonists on a volcanic island in the South Seas, their many and thrilling adventures with the natives, and their escape from imminent death through the heroism of the mysterious Lentala. The love motive is clean and novel. There are eight illustrations in color by Maynard Dixon.

The motive used by Mr. Robert Hichens in his powerful novel, "The Call of the Blood," is employed with slightly different treatment by him in his latest romance, "A Spirit in Prison" (Harpers). It is in Italy that Mr. Hichens' atmospheric power and charm are at their best, and what better parts of Italy than Sicily and Naples could be found for the movement of such an intensely human story as this? There is the beautiful peasant girl betrayed by the elegant gentleman, the influence of the church, the description of Italian scenery, and the intense love passages for which Mr. Hichens is justly famous. There are some graphic illustrations by Cyrus Cuneo.

We are not accustomed to regard Mr. W. H. Mallock as a novelist. He has taught us by his contributions to political, economic, and general philosophy to look upon him in an entirely different light. In his book, "An Immortal Soul" (Harpers), however, he has given us a really clever romance, the central theme of which is the dual nature of a fascinating English school-girl.

A well-sustained little story of Japanese social and political life which makes pleasant reading, and, moreover, ends as it should, is Mrs. Hugh Fraser's "The Heart of a Geisha" (Putnams). The frontispiece illustration and border decorations are by Ludwig Holberg.

In "Jennie Allen" Miss Grace Donworth has created, we believe, a really new character, as deliciously original as "Mrs. Wiggs." Jennie's homely philosophy and kindly views of life in general are set forth in a series of "letters" to her friend, Miss Musgrave. The volume containing these letters, which is effectively illustrated, is brought out by Small, Maynard & Co. under the rather long title: "The Letters of Jennie Allen to Her Friend, Miss Musgrave."

Dr. S. Weir Mitchell is as much at home in the Philadelphia of 1792 as in the Philadelphia of 1909. His last novel, "The Red City" (Century), pertains to the period of President Washington's second administration. The chief characters in the story are a young French Huguenot refugee and a Quaker lass, while Hugh Wynne himself figures in the tale and such personalities as Jefferson and Hamilton pass and repass. The narrative in no way falls behind Dr. Mitchell's earlier efforts in historical fiction.

Another book by Dr. Mitchell just brought out (Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.)



W. W. JACOBS.
(Author of "Salthaven.")

is a story for boys, entitled "A Venture in 1777." This gives the experiences of some Philadelphia boys who, during Howe's occupation of Philadelphia, were able to render a service to Washington at Valley Forge.

The humanity and humor which fairly reek from all that Mr. W. W. Jacobs writes are irresistibly characteristic of his latest story, "Salthaven" (Scribners). Mr. Jacobs writes some more about skippers and mates and seamen and a lot of other folks with whom they come in contact, who are big hearted and genuine and irresistibly funny without being silly. This volume is illustrated with pen sketches.

Mr. F. Hopkinson Smith's "Peter" (Scribners) is a refreshing outbreak of wholesome optimism. We should all like to believe that such a lovable old bachelor as Peter could sur-

vive in modern New York business life, but whether he is a possibility in that sense or not, it is good to have met him even in the pages of fiction. There is nothing in Mr. Hopkinson Smith's style of novel that is either morbid or unwholesome. In all his work there is breeziness and an abundance of good nature.

While exhibiting imagination, power, and the forceful delineation of character, the "fact story" which James Hopper and Fred R. Bechdolt have written, under the title "9009" (McClure), is not exactly a work of fiction. Indignation over "facts" concerning the treatment of convicts in American prisons has spurred on the authors to reveal in calm but graphic language many of the existing evils. Number 9009 is a convict,—the authors name him John Collins,—who revolts against the system of spying, treachery, and betrayal with which a convict must identify himself in order to become a "trusty." The story is not a biography, but, the authors insist in their preface, "everything that happens to 9009 within the prison is something which has happened to some convict in some American prison at some time."

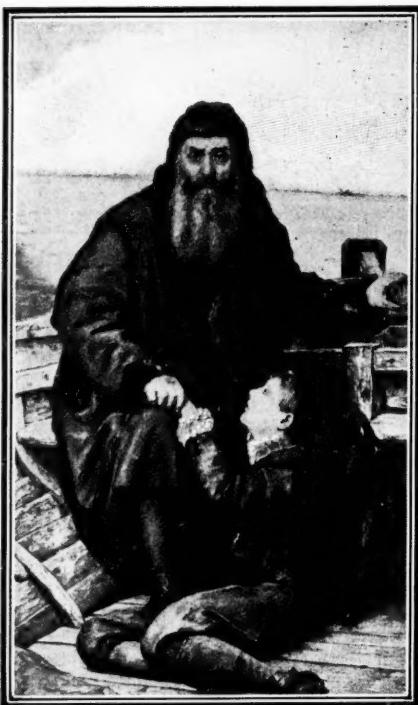
The latest,—and last,—novel of that clever delineator of New York society life, Mr. Herman Knickerbocker Vielé (Mr. Vielé died on December 14) is entitled "Heartbreak Hill" (Duffield). This is the story of an attractive little girl and a stepfather. Mopsie Beatoun is horrified at the thought of any one taking the place of her own father, and so she runs away to live with an aunt. The book is the chronicle of her life and doings among her relatives at Heartbreak Hill, and the story has been subtitled by the author "A Comedy Romance."

HISTORICAL WORKS.

The appearance in Italy, some years ago, of the first volume of Ferrero's "Greatness and Decline of Rome" proclaimed to the world that a new name must be added to the list of great historians. The ability to take such a worn theme as Roman history and treat it in any way so as to command even the slightest public attention is in itself an evidence of intellectual power. When, however, all the facts and evidences of a vast subject of this sort are marshaled with such philosophical acumen, such analytical skill, and such power of illumination as has been shown by Signor Guglielmo Ferrero in his "Greatness and Decline of Rome," such a history is truly epoch-making. In one of our "Leading Articles" this month we presented a few of the details of Signor Ferrero's career, with some sidelights upon the general structure of his great work. Four volumes have now appeared in English from the press of Putnams,—the first and second translated by Alfred E. Zimmern, fellow and tutor of New College, Oxford, and the third and fourth in the translation of Rev. H. J. Chaytor, head mas-



Cover design (reduced)



COLLIER'S FAMOUS PICTURE OF HUDSON'S LAST HOURS.

Frontispiece (reduced) from "The Conquest of the Great Northwest."

ter of Plymouth College. Another volume in English is announced for early publication, and two or three more in the original Italian are yet to be written. Volume I. has for its subject "Imperialism and the Republic," Vol. II. is devoted to Julius Caesar, Vol. III. to "The Fall of an Aristocracy," and Vol. IV. to Rome and Egypt. Succeeding volumes will treat of "The Cæsars," "The Cosmopolitan Empire," and "The Decadence of Rome." Signor Ferrero's viewpoint throughout the entire work is that of a strictly impartial observer, with no theory to prove. His general conclusion is that the causes which led to the downfall of Rome may be summed up, as in the case of the history of other human societies as,—"the growth of a nationalist and industrial democracy on the ruins of a federation of agricultural aristocracies." His stories of the rise and fall of Julius Cæsar, of the death of Cicero, and of the intrigues and character of Cleopatra are among the most masterly and fascinating of historic pictures.

The absorbing, romance-studded career of the Hudson Bay Company is presented in her own graphic way by Miss Agnes C. Laut in a two-volume work, "The Conquest of the Great Northwest" (Outing Publishing Company). In this vivid account of the "Lords of the Outer Marches," Miss Laut tells how the domain of

the great fur company extended from Alaska to San Francisco and down to Mexico, across to the Missouri and the Mississippi, and north again to the St. Lawrence. "Yet more, the Hudson Bay adventurers had a station half way across the Pacific, in Hawaii." The empire of this great corporation was much larger than all Europe. Miss Laut has attempted to tell the story of the company "only as adventurer, path-finder, and empire-builder, from Rupert's Land to California,—feudal lord beaten off the field by democracy." Where the empire-builder merges with the colonizer and the pioneer, Miss Laut has dropped the story. In preparing for this task the author traveled over most of the country ruled by the great Hudson Bay Company. She also sailed to Europe and back again to examine archives and to talk with men who know intimately of the company's achievements. Very careful notes and references and some hitherto unpublished sketches and photographs add to the historical value and charm of these two volumes.

Two of the new volumes in the American Commonwealths series (Houghton, Mifflin Company) are: "Wisconsin, the Americanization of a French Settlement," by Reuben Gold Thwaites, and "Minnesota, the North Star State," by William Watts Folwell. Wisconsin has now been a member of the American Union for sixty years, but its forests and waterways were known to the French Jesuit missionaries and traders very early in the seventeenth century. Mr. Thwaites very properly devotes nearly half of his volume to the periods of French and British domination, dating the Americanization of Wisconsin from the lead-mining era of 1825 and the succeeding years. Professor Folwell's narrative of Minnesota's growth is naturally briefer, since it begins with a much later period. Not a few of the early settlers who went into Minnesota Territory in the '50's of the last century are still living. The State has had a wonderful development, in spite of occasional setbacks like the Indian wars of the '60's and the grasshopper plague of the '70's. Professor Folwell has given special attention in this volume to Minnesota politics, analyzing the careers of a number of Minnesota's leading public men.

We have received the first volume of a compendious work devoted to "The Missions and Missionaries of California," by Brother Zephyrin Engelhardt, of the Franciscan Order (San Francisco: The James H. Barry Company). This writer has laboriously compiled from original sources the most important information regarding the Jesuit, Franciscan, and Dominican missions on our Pacific Coast. The present volume is principally confined to the missions of lower California, but contains many references to the work of pious Catholics in other parts of America. A volume on the history of the missions in upper California is promised for the near future.

STUDIES OF THE AMERICAN TYPE.

In a little book, entitled "The American as He Is" (Macmillan), Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, president of Columbia University, has gathered together the three lectures delivered by him last year at the University of Copenhagen. Dr. Butler's discourses were based on the general contention that "for a genuine understanding of the Government and of the intellectual and

moral temper of the people of the United States, one must know thoroughly and well the writings and speeches of three Americans,—Alexander Hamilton, Abraham Lincoln, and Ralph Waldo Emerson."

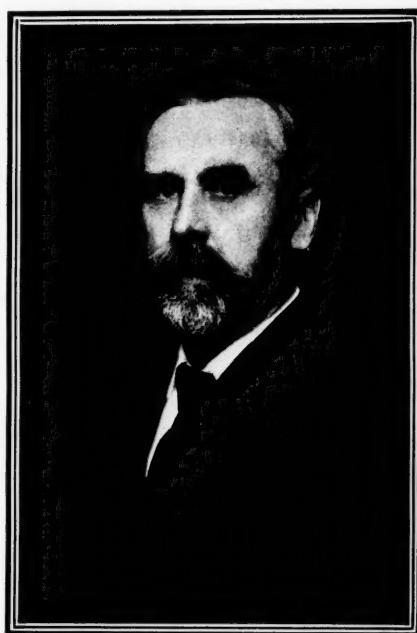
Senator Albert J. Beveridge, in two trenchantly written little volumes, also considers the American type, under the titles: "Americans of To-Day and To-Morrow" and "Work and Habits" (Altemus). These little brochures are full of Senator Beveridge's optimistic philosophy.

Mr. John Graham Brooks has rendered a useful service by bringing together in a volume entitled "As Others See Us" (Macmillan) excerpts from a number of the most distinguished foreign criticisms of American institutions. Mr. Brooks has done much more, however, than merely to present extracts from the writings of Bryce, de Tocqueville, Harriet Martineau, and other notable critics of the past century. His own connected comment on these criticisms is sane and enlightening as well as kindly. It is clear that much of the criticism voiced by these foreign observers many years since, bitterly represented as it was by contemporary American opinion, was not altogether in vain, if an American writer at this day can profit so fully from what the critics said and can turn it to such good account in a book of this kind.

DESCRIPTIVE ART BOOKS.

Two recent volumes on English art and artists are noteworthy. Dutton & Co. bring out a "History of British Water-Color Painting," by H. M. Cundall, with a biographical list of painters and fifty-eight colored illustrations. Duffield publishes "Stories of English Artists, from Vandyck to Turner," selected and arranged by Randall Davies and Cecil Hunt, with copious illustrations.

From Duffield also we have a companion vol-



JOHN GRAHAM BROOKS.
(Author of "As Others See Us.")

ume to the one on English artists, entitled "Stories of the Flemish and Dutch Artists," selected and arranged by Victor Reynolds, considering, with colored illustrations, the Dutch painters from the time of the Van Eycks to the end of the seventeenth century.

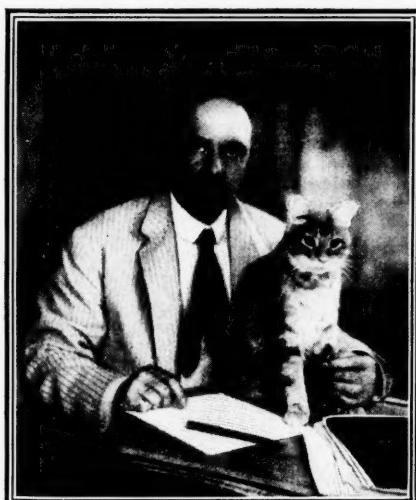
One of the thorough and serviceable editions of the classics the publication of which marks the present holiday season is the six-volume Eversley edition of the complete "Works of Alfred Lord Tennyson" (Macmillan), edited by Hallam Tennyson and annotated by Alfred Lord Tennyson. The edition is very satisfactorily printed and bound, and to the first volume there is a portrait frontispiece of the poet from a painting by George Frederick Watts.

Dutch art receives consideration, also, in the little art gallery guidebook (McClurg), entitled "Holland," by Esther Singleton. The illustrations in this little volume are full page and in tint.

Italian art is considered in a volume by Grant Allen, with sixty-five reproductions from photographs, under the general title, "Evolution in Italian Art" (Wessels Company).

NEW EDITIONS.

It was worth while rendering More's "Utopia" into modern English. This rendering, by Valerian Paget, under the title "More's Millennium," has been brought out by the John McBride Company. Students of English literature will not dispute the late Prof. Churton Collins' verdict, that as a romance and a work of art the "Utopia" ranks with "Pilgrim's Progress" and



THE LATE HERMAN KNICKERBOCKER VIELÉ.
(Author of "Heartbreak Hill." See page 123.)



SIR THOMAS MORE.

(Whose classic sociological romance, "Utopia," has just been issued, rendered into modern English.)

"Robinson Crusoe." It may, however, be new to many readers of history that Benjamin Franklin, Alexander Hamilton, and more than one other of the builders of our American republic drew their inspiration largely from this "Utopia" in preparing our Constitution. Moreover, as Mr. Paget points out in his introduction, "we are still busy discussing to-day the same burning questions around our parish pumps."

Five little volumes in the New Medieval Library, reprinted in imitation of the original binding and illustrated in tint, come from the press of Duffield & Co.: "The Book of the Duke of True Lovers," translated from the French of Christine de Pisan; "The Babees' Book, Medieval Manners for the Young," from Dr. Furnivall's texts; "The Chatelaine of Vergi," translated from the thirteenth century romance of Raynaud; "The Legend of the Holy Fina, Virgin of Santo Gimignano," translated from the original Italian of di Cocco; and "Of the Tumbler of Our Lady," translated from medieval French.

Among the new editions of the classics are: Kingsley's "Water Babies," with color plates by Arthur Dixon, published by Nister in London and imported by Dutton; the centenary edition of Poe's prose tales (Duffield), with pictures in color by E. L. Blumenschein; "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland," with illustrations by Millicent Sowerby, published by Duffield & Co.; "The Spring Cleaning," by Frances Hodgson Burnett (Century), with illustrations by Harrison Cady.

BOOKS ON MUSICAL TOPICS.

New translations of many of the famous Latin hymns of the early and middle ages, with

biographical notes about the authors of the better known, have been published in book form (Grafton Press), from the pen of Dr. Daniel Joseph Donahoe, under the title "Early Christian Hymns." All that body of song contained in the Roman Breviary, together with many others, make up the volume.

The books on musical topics or of musical interest which have appeared during the present season include: Two volumes in the Musicians' Library, brought out by Oliver Ditson,— "Songs from the Operas for Mezzo-Soprano," edited by H. E. Krehbiel, and the second volume of piano compositions by Johann Sebastian Bach, edited by Ebenezer Prout, with a frontispiece portrait of the composer; a collection for the piano of Gottschalk's compositions (Ditson); three little volumes of technical musical instruction,— "The True Method of Tone Production," by J. Van Broekhoven (H. W. Gray Company), and "Twelve Lessons in the Fundamentals of Voice Production," by Arthur L. Manchester, and "Panseron's A B C of Music," edited by N. Clifford Page (the two latter being in the Music Students' Library, brought out by Ditson); an illustrated book of simple suggestions on "Piano Playing" (McClure), by Josef Hofmann; and "The Psychology of Singing" (Macmillan), "a rational method of voice culture based on a scientific analysis of all systems, ancient and modern," by David C. Taylor.

PROBLEMS OF RELIGION AND ETHICS.

In a book entitled "The Future Leadership of the Church" (New York: Student Department, Young Men's Christian Association), Mr. John R. Mott, who is the general secretary of the World's Student Christian Federation, gives the results of studies carried on during the past six years in all parts of the world, undertaken with a view to learn the causes of the notable recent dearth of able candidates for the Christian ministry. The fact that Mr. Mott's discussion is chiefly based on interviews with a great number of men throughout the world who may be supposed to have this particular subject most at heart gives special value to his statements.

The attempt to approach religion from the standpoint of psychology is a matter of comparatively recent endeavor. In the serious consideration of this subject it may be said that the thinkers of the United States of America have taken a leading part. A résumé of what has been accomplished by investigations in this field, in the form of a textbook, has just come from the press of Scribners under the title "The Psychological Phenomena of Christianity." The author is Dr. George Barton Cutten (Yale), author of "The Psychology of Alcoholism." In this volume the whole range of the phenomena of Christianity has been included, abnormal and normal, pathological and healthful. As far as possible the supernatural aspect of religion has been avoided, and the discussion of the human side as evidenced in the "behavior of the soul" (as far as this may be known at all) forms the basis of consideration.

In a helpful little brochure entitled "Life Questions of High-School Boys," which has been brought out by the New York State Young Men's Christian Association Press, Prof. Jeremiah W. Jenks (political economy and politics, Cornell University) makes some sug-

gestions to young men on how to meet liberally and manfully the problems and temptations likely to assail them during the first years of their high-school life.

STUDIES OF NATURE.

A very thorough and painstaking account, in the form of a text-book, of the life, behavior, and influence of the bacteria that concern American country life has been prepared for the Rural Science series (edited by Prof. L. H. Bailey) by Dr. Jacob G. Lipman. This volume, which appears under the title "Bacteria in Relation to Country Life" (Macmillan), is really a discussion of the problem of health and comfort in the country as affected by these minute organisms which float in the air we breathe and in the water we drink and perform an important work in the soil from which our food is extracted. Dr. Lipman is soil chemist and bacteriologist for the New Jersey Agricultural Ex-

"Camps and Cruises of an Ornithologist" (Appleton's), and is embellished by 250 photographs made by the author. Mr. Chapman's special work during the past seven years has been the collecting of specimens during the nesting season of birds, and making field studies and photographs on which to base a series of "habitat groups" of North American birds, designed to illustrate not only the habits and haunts of the birds shown, but also the country in which they live. These points are well brought out in the text and illustrations of the volume before us. It is understood that Mr. Chapman has furnished much assistance to President Roosevelt in his preparations for the forthcoming African trip.

THE SCIENCE OF HEALTH.

One of the most readable and entertaining, if not always convincing, books on the philosophy of health we have ever had the pleasure of reading is Dr. Woods Hutchinson's "Instinct and Health" (Dodd, Mead). Dr. Hutchinson, who is lecturer on clinical medicine at the New York Polyclinic and has already written extensively for the periodical press of the country on health topics, addresses this book not to invalids but to the ordinary, normal individual. In vivid style he explodes many popular fallacies regarding eating, drinking, breathing, and so forth. "It isn't so very dangerous to be alive," he says, "only we must know how to live—and so many of us do not."

Two other books of this same general character are "Mind and Work," by Luther H. Gulick (Doubleday, Page & Co.), and "Mind, Religion, and Health" (Funk & Wagnalls), by Robert MacDonald. Dr. Gulick's little volume aims to point out clearly the effect of mental condition on physical efficiency—"the vital relation between one's mind and the daily work." The sprightly style and vigorous thought is indicated by such chapter headings as "The Habit of Success," "The Mental Effects of a Flat-top Desk," and "The Time to Quit." Dr. MacDonald, who is in charge of a prominent Brooklyn church, attempts in this volume to give an appreciation of the Emmanuel movement and to show how its principles can be applied in promoting actual physical health and adding to our mental contentment.

A FEW BOOKS FOR THE YOUNG.

ANTONI VAN LEEUWENHOEK, THE DISCOVERER OF BACTERIOLOGY.

(From an old print.)

periment Station and associate professor of agriculture in Rutgers College. The volume is illustrated, having for a frontispiece a portrait of Antoni van Leeuwenhoek, the Dutch discoverer of bacteriology, a portrait we herewith reproduce. Another book on the subject of soil composition and potentiality, a little larger in purview than Dr. Lipman's work, is a new revised and enlarged edition of Mr. A. D. Hall's work "The Soil" (Dutton). Mr. Hall, who is a director of the Rothamsted Station, subtitles his book: "An Introduction to the Scientific Study of the Growth of Crops."

Mr. Frank M. Chapman, the curator of birds in the American Museum of Natural History, at New York, is known not only as an expert in all matters relating to birds, but especially as a successful photographer from nature. The latest volume from Mr. Chapman's pen is entitled

"A Treasury of Verse for Little Children" is a square octavo containing a goodly number of remarkably well-chosen selections made by M. G. Edgar (Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.), with profuse illustrations, both in color and black and white, by Willy Pogany, that are most decorative and effective.

G. P. Dutton & Co. are the importers of a number of children's books by English authors, printed in Germany, that are perhaps sometimes lacking in spontaneity, but are certainly put together with a knowledge of nursery requirements, for they are overflowing with pictures, and each book treats of a variety of episodes, so that the childish mind finds ample satisfaction in their pages. Among these is a long octavo, "The Nursery Picture Book," "The Motor Car Model Book," full of "cut-outs;" a box of four little volumes called "The Old Farm Story Book;" a thick volume with picture, prose, and verse, in "Chatter Box" style,





Cover design (reduced).

called "Our Own Story Book," and a little volume "The Ducklings Go A-Swimming," with verse far above the average, by J. H. Jewett.

"The Land of the Lost," by Allen Ayrault Green (Small, Maynard & Co.), with colored illustrations, is an "Alice in Wonderland" story, rather forced in its humor.

Harper & Bros. publish "In the Open," stories of outdoor life, by William O. Stoddard, and "Adventures at Sea," stories by a number of writers, all of them dealing with youthful heroism in a very wholesome way. A book we can recommend.

One of the most delightful picture books of the year is "Dream Blocks," by Aileen Cleveland Higgins (Duffield & Co.), with pictures by Jessie Willcox Smith, that are full of the true essence of childhood, and delicate in their colors. The verses, written *a la* Stevenson, are sometimes without point, but the author coins some happy phrases, as when she speaks of a "New Dress," "When It's So Sunday Clean," and of "My nicest, clean-faced kiss." It's a pity the book is not better bound.

"Persis Putnam's Treasure" (Little, Brown & Co.), is a story of Nan's camp and many happenings in outdoor life, appropriate for girls of fourteen to sixteen.

A book for smaller children, say, eight to ten, is "Dorothy Dainty's Gay Times," by Amy Brooks (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Company).

"Irma in Italy," by Helen Leah Reed, illustrated (Little, Brown & Co.), is a story of a girl's adventures and travels in sunny Italy.

From Henry Holt & Co. comes "Pete, Cow-Puncher;" from W. A. Wilde Company comes "Six Girls Growing Older," and from Lothrop,

Lee & Shepard Company come "The Boat Club Boys of Lakeport," "A Full-Back Afloat," "All Among the Loggers," and "Four Boys on the Mississippi."

OTHER BOOKS OF THE SEASON.

It might not be easy to adequately characterize the latest book of Mr. Austin Dobson. It is a collection of literary thoughts upon literature, particularly upon eighteenth century books and associations. This volume, which the Macmillans have brought out under the title "De Libris," is permeated with Mr. Dobson's quaint, erudite literary lore, both prose and verse, and is interlarded with a number of charming pen sketches, some by himself and some by well-known artists. The one we reproduce here is from a hitherto unpublished sketch by the late Kate Greenaway.

In "The Memoirs of the Comte de Rambuteau" (Putnam), edited by his grandson and translated from the French by J. C. Brogan, we have a record of the experiences of the Chamberlain of Napoleon I. This admirable master of ceremonies saw the Emperor in his familiar and every-day relations, and gives in this volume an animated account of the way the court entertained officially and publicly, as well as the way it informally amused itself.

In "How to Understand Electrical Work" (Harpers), William J. Onken, associate editor of the *Electrical World*, and Joseph B. Baker, technical editor of the United States Geological Survey, give simple explanations of the philosophy and mechanical application of electric light, heat, power, and traction in daily life. The book, which is very copiously illustrated, tells the boy all about how and why "the wheels go 'round."

A finely illustrated volume in color, "Ancient Tales and Folk-lore of Japan" (Macmillan), by Richard Gordon Smith, retells in story form most of the picturesque traditions and legends of the land of the chrysanthemum.



ONE OF THE HITHERTO UNPUBLISHED SKETCHES BY THE LATE KATE GREENAWAY, REPRODUCED FROM AUSTIN DOBSON'S BOOK, "DE LIBRIS."

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